



377



2.000  
5/14  
15/3

371.42  
A667







*Student Personnel Services  
in Higher Education*



# *Student Personnel Services in Higher Education*

Dugald S. Arbuckle

*Director, Student Personnel  
School of Education, Boston University*

0020

*New York Toronto London*  
McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.  
1953

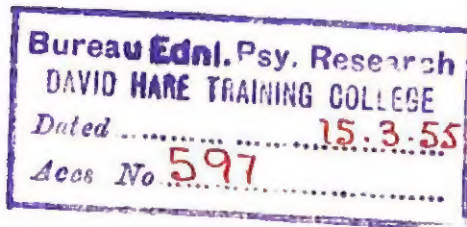
371.422

ARB

STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Copyright, 1953, by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. Printed in the United States of America. All rights reserved. This book, or parts thereof, may not be reproduced in any form without permission of the publishers.

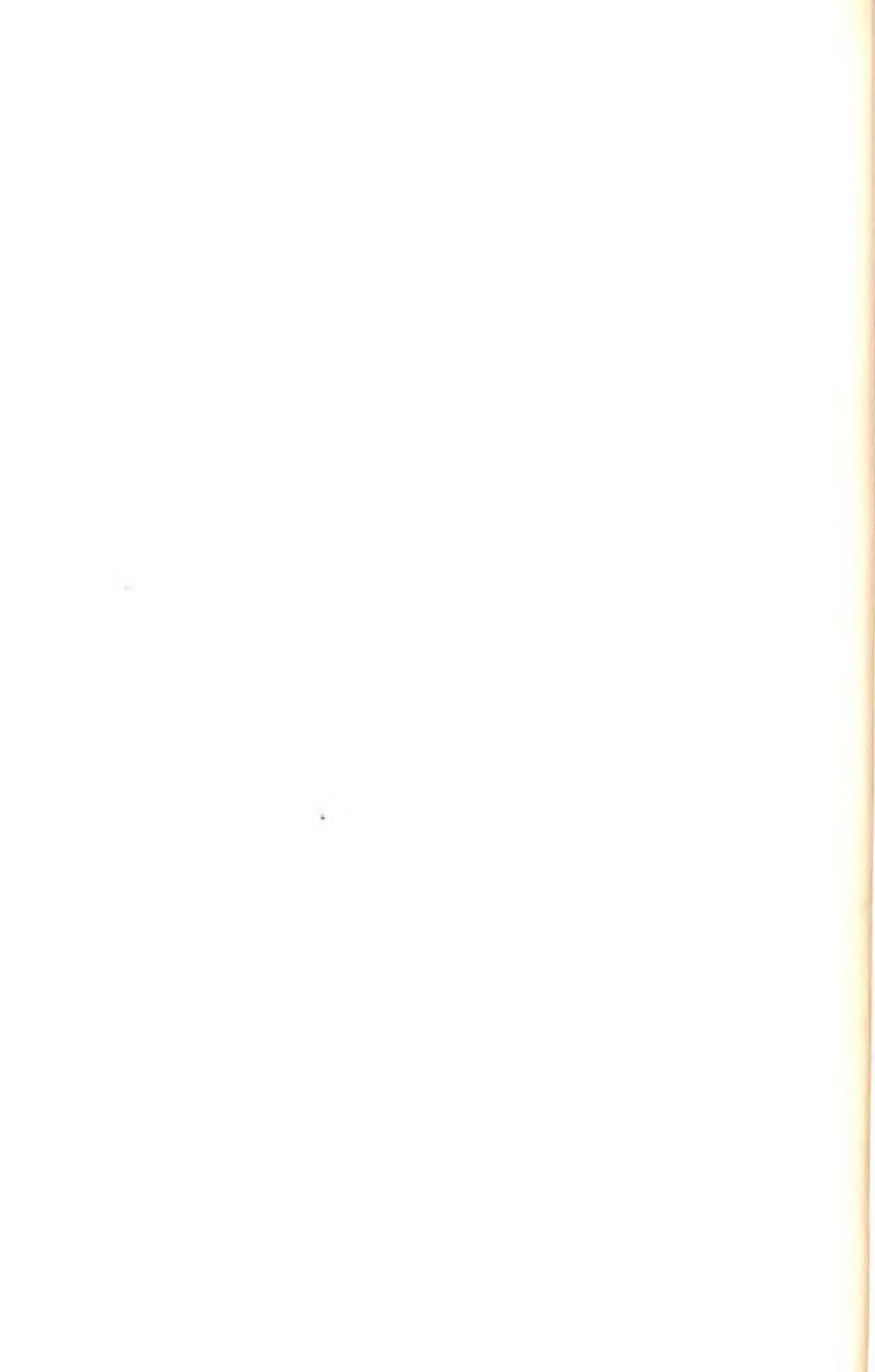
Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 53-8001



*To My Parents, Margaret and John*







## *Preface*

This book is addressed to all faculty members of institutions of higher learning, with the belief that their basic concern and interest is the individual student. The organized services discussed in the book take the time, the effort, and the ingenuity of specialized personnel workers, but all faculty members should have some understanding of these services. The basic purpose of the book is to help faculty members to understand the student-personnel services that are offered on their campus. Teaching is included in this list, since it is obviously a student-personnel service and has a greater effect on the entire student body than any other service.

The chapter headings refer to specific services, but it is hoped that the reader will find that the emphasis is on people. The student-personnel services in any college or university are no stronger than the people who provide them.

The writer has functioned as an editor as well as an author. My thanks go to all the students and fellow faculty members who have worked with me on the problems of student-personnel services in higher education. Part of the book is made up of the contributions of these fine personnel workers, although the general point of view expressed is that of the author. My particular thanks to James Humphrey, Joseph Irwin, William Tracey, Robert Brown, Helen Moreland, Donald Oliver, Kenneth Christoph, Frieda Sapienza, and my wife, Margaret Arbuckle, who was patient enough to put up with me while I wrote a book.

*Dugald S. Arbuckle*



## Contents

<i>Preface</i>	vii
1. <i>An Evaluation of Student-personnel Services in Higher Education</i>	1
2. <i>The Organization and Administration of Student-personnel Services</i>	21
3. <i>The Selection and Admission of Students to Colleges and Universities</i>	40
4. <i>Student Orientation</i>	65
5. <i>Vocational Services and Counseling</i>	84
6. <i>Counseling</i>	118
7. <i>Teaching in Institutions of Higher Learning</i>	140
8. <i>Religious Services</i>	157
9. <i>Health Services</i>	182
10. <i>Housing and Dining Services</i>	202
11. <i>Student Aid</i>	224
12. <i>Student Group Activities</i>	246

## APPENDIXES

1. <i>Memorandum to Faculty Advisers on Withdrawals</i>	271
2. <i>Interview Card Used by Admission Counselors</i>	272
3. <i>Rating Scale Used in Secondary Schools</i>	274
4. <i>Admission Counselor's Confidential Report</i>	276
5. <i>A Card Used to Keep a Record of Application</i>	278
6. <i>Interview Card Used by Admission Counselors</i>	279
7. <i>Undergraduate Application for Admission</i>	280
8. <i>Application for Admission</i>	288

9.	<i>Orientation Evaluation Form</i>	290
10.	<i>Newsletter to Applicants</i>	291
11.	<i>Sophomore Interview Form</i>	294
12.	<i>Junior Interview Form</i>	295
13.	<i>Instructions with Regard to Interviews for New Students</i>	296
14.	<i>Form Used in a Placement Office</i>	297
15.	<i>Form Used in a Placement Office</i>	298
16.	<i>Card Used by Placement Office</i>	302
17.	<i>Information Card Filed in Placement Office</i>	304
18.	<i>Employer Information Card Used in Placement Office</i>	305
19.	<i>Information Form Used by Teachers</i>	306
20.	<i>Information Form on Teachers' Freshman Advisees</i>	307
21.	<i>Statement of Client</i>	308
22.	<i>Typescript of a Counseling Session</i>	312
23.	<i>Form Used in Course Evaluation</i>	316
24.	<i>Form Used in Instructor Evaluation</i>	317
25.	<i>Typescript of a Group Discussion on Guidance</i>	318
26.	<i>Form Used in Self-evaluation</i>	326
27.	<i>Report Form Used by Medical Office</i>	327
28.	<i>Report Form Used by Medical Office</i>	328
29.	<i>Extra-class Interest Form Used in Residences</i>	329
30.	<i>Health Statement Used by Students</i>	330
31.	<i>Personnel Report from Women's Residences</i>	334
32.	<i>Application for Freshman Scholarship Appointment</i>	336
33.	<i>Loan Application Blank</i>	340
34.	<i>Application for Grant-in-Aid</i>	342
	<i>Index</i>	347



## CHAPTER 1 *An Evaluation of Student-personnel Services in Higher Education*

The traditional place for a chapter on evaluation is at the end of a book rather than at the beginning. It does appear more logical, however, for at least two reasons, to have such a chapter at the beginning of this book. Student-personnel services are those services which are concerned with the well-being of the whole student, and an evaluation of student needs should indicate the extent of the need for student-personnel services. Indirectly, it will also indicate the need for a book dealing with student-personnel services. In the second place, a study of the methods of evaluating the existing services is necessary to give some indication of the status of evaluation in student-personnel work today. If student-personnel services are being evaluated in a scientific manner, then it is possible to determine the effect of a particular personnel service and to make decisions as to changes in, or even elimination of, the service. If valid evaluative techniques are not being used, the college personnel worker is placed in the embarrassing position of being unable to indicate the effect and the value of the work in which he is engaged.

This chapter, then, will attempt to indicate that there is a real need for student-personnel services in institutions of higher education, and it will take a critical glance at the status of the evaluative methods and criteria that are used to determine the effectiveness of existing student-personnel services on college campuses.

### THE NEED FOR STUDENT-PERSONNEL SERVICES

Most college students are adolescents, and, even in an environment where they are understood and accepted, for almost every student there will be occasions when he will be in need of assistance. Very often in the college environment, which for many students is strange and confusing, the student may feel that he is not understood, that he is not accepted,

and that sometimes he is even being treated in a hostile manner. When every faculty member in every institution of higher learning has accepted the student-personnel point of view so that it has become a part of his philosophy of living, and when he has the understanding and the skills to work effectively with people, then the need for organized personnel services will be greatly decreased. The student coming to college, however, will soon find that many of his professors are much more concerned with research than they are with him; he will find that some of them make quite clear their complete lack of concern over his well-being; and he will find in college the highest point of *poor* teaching, since the greater proportion of our college teachers, whose full-time job is teaching, have had absolutely no preparation for that task.

Many studies have been made of the problems of youth, and many of these problems can be solved or surmounted if the disturbed individual is fortunate enough to be in close contact with an adult who has an understanding of human behavior and professional training in the treatment of deviations from normal behavior. The teacher should be such an adult, and there is just as great a need for skilled and trained teachers in colleges as in elementary and secondary schools. The fact remains, however, that it is only within the past few years that the importance of college teaching has been recognized to the point where several institutions are now concerned with the preparation and training of college teachers.

In most colleges, then, the student will find that some of his professors are research specialists who have little or no interest in either the teaching process or the students who are being taught. He will find others who are genuinely interested in the welfare of students, but they lack the training necessary to be effective in dealing with problems of human behavior. Many youthful students, particularly those who have come from a school which has been staffed with skilled and understanding teachers, may find it extremely difficult to adjust to this situation. They will need help, and it is the task of all student-personnel workers to give them the assistance that they need.

Every institution of higher learning needs a program of student services that is dedicated to the welfare of the individual student. There are numerous factors that particularly emphasize this need. Let us note a few of them.

1. *The high rate of withdrawal.* Of all factors that emphasize the need for student-personnel services this is probably the most dominant and the most dramatic. The appalling fact is that only one-half of the students who enter the college gates as freshmen will ever leave those gates as graduates. Studies show that in many institutions from one-third to one-half of the freshman class drops out in the first year. Not only does this represent a national loss, but it is also a serious drain on the finances of

the institutions. Scouring the country for new students while allowing half of the present class to withdraw is very much like padlocking the barn doors after the most valuable cows have departed. It also represents a serious loss in time and effort for the student and for the faculty, and it adds one more record of failure to the student's history.

While it may be considered the task of the admission services to see that those students who are almost certainly going to have a record of failure are not admitted to the institution, it is the responsibility of all personnel workers to see that those students who are admitted are started off on the right foot and given the help that is necessary, so that their chance of graduation will be as great as is humanly possible. A careless admissions office, or one dedicated to securing as students any young people capable of paying their tuition, puts an almost impossible burden on the shoulders of other personnel workers. Once the student has been admitted, however, the institution must accept the responsibility of doing the best that it can for him.

At the Boston University School of Education the Director of Student Personnel forwards a memorandum regarding withdrawn students to every faculty member. This memorandum, a copy of which is shown in Appendix 1, indicates all the students who have withdrawn, the names of the faculty advisers of the withdrawing students, and the reasons for withdrawal, if known. The memorandum goes out at the end of each semester, and it helps to make each adviser more aware of the number of students who withdraw from the school. Where reason for withdrawal is marked "personal," it indicates that the Director of Student Personnel has confidential information which is not to be divulged. Every reason for withdrawal marked "unknown" is a challenge to the entire school faculty, since a student who withdraws without any indication of his reason for withdrawal is obviously a student who does not feel an understanding and close relationship with the faculty members of the school.

At the end of the academic year the Dean of the School of Education sends a letter to some of the students who have withdrawn. In the letter he encourages the former student to continue his higher education if at all possible and generally tries to make him feel that the institution is still interested in him even though he is no longer a student. The letter does not go, for example, to those who have joined the armed services or to those who have been detached from the institution for academic reasons. Even in the latter case, however, another letter does indicate to the student that, if he can show that he can do the required work, his application for readmission will be given every consideration.

Financial difficulties, academic difficulties, and other personal troubles are usually responsible for the majority of dropouts. One of the functions of an orientation program is to detect the students who fall into these

difficulties, so that counselors may assist them in coming to an awareness of what might lie ahead and help them as much as possible to overcome their difficulties. Some students who say they drop out for financial reasons are capable of remaining in college if they will accept a lower standard of living and fewer hours of sleep and recreation, and some of them give every indication of being financially better off than many other students who would not even consider withdrawing. Many students are unaware of the financial assistance that is available for them not only in the college but from many other sources. Despite all the assistance that can be offered, however, there are many students who cannot actually afford to go to college. If the admissions office is willing to take the last few dollars from a student who has no other means of support, his drop-out is almost inevitable. In this case, the job of the personnel worker is to try to help him to adjust to his withdrawal so that it is not accompanied by bitterness and cynicism.

There is no exact predictor of college success. The mortality rate for academic reasons is affected by both the stiffness of the entrance requirements and the austerity of the individual professor's grading. If the entrance requirements are high, there will be fewer dropouts for academic reasons than if entrance is easy and the grading severe. The latter situation probably occurs more frequently. Some professors even feel that it is their duty to help to get rid of some youths who are not of the correct academic caliber. At any rate, all personnel workers know that a difficult time probably lies ahead for the student who has a mediocre high-school record and whose intellectual capacity is below that of the average college freshman. There is still some confusion over intelligence and its measurement, but a student who, according to several standardized tests of academic achievement, has an I.Q. less than 100 is almost certain to have a difficult time in attaining a liberal-arts or college-level education.

Academic difficulties, however, are not always caused by lack of intellectual capacity. Many failing students have the capacity to do better-than-average work, and often their personal difficulties are such that the achievement of a respectable grade is impossible. Any college regulation which stipulates immediate detachment for poor academic achievement is obviously unjust. The author can think of a student whose wife had only a few months to live; of a student who was the chief witness at a murder trial; of a student whose wife had just had a miscarriage, endangering her own life; of a student whose wife had just instituted divorce proceedings against him; of a student who could live no longer because the only girl in the world had spurned him; of a student whose father had just lost all his money; of a student who had been involved in a fatal traffic accident. None of these students were deviates, and all possessed an above-average mentality, yet all of them failed in their course work



during one semester. A rigid ruling would have meant detachment and the loss of students who later showed that they had much to offer and graduated with a high academic standing.

Academic difficulties may also be caused by more extreme kinds of emotional disturbances, and while the personnel program should be concerned with helping all who can be helped it should also be concerned with the detection of individuals whose personality disturbances are such that long-term deep therapy is required for any sort of permanent alleviation. Such individuals do come to college, sometimes while they are under the care of a clinician, and sometimes completely on their own. One aspect of the personnel program must be diagnostic if the more dramatic and violent effects of a disturbed personality are not to be witnessed on the campus.

There is probably a negative correlation between personal difficulties and high grades, but there are some students whose personal difficulties do not show up in the academic record. Some students who are doing well academically will withdraw because of increasing personal tensions which may have nothing to do with their college environment. An effective personnel program may detect some of these students, and steps may be taken to help them or to forestall further difficulties. In many cases, little can be done. The boy who has finally come to college to break away from his drunken parents may be overcome with guilt feelings at the thought of leaving them helpless and alone. He can be given help, but in the long run he must make the choice, and there is little possibility that the choice will be a happy one. The girl who wants to stay in college, but who also wants to marry an itinerant engineer, can also be given help, but she too must make her own choice. In many such cases, the best choice may be to leave college, and an effective personnel program may help students to get out of college as well as help them to remain in college.

2. *The increasing demands of the culture for an ever higher and higher education.* American youth face a continual and persistent pressure to attain a higher education. It is probably accurate to say that many freshmen who enter college seek only a degree and have a rather hazy idea of the real meaning of an education. On some college campuses the academic education and the extracurricular activities are very much of the high-school type, and there is very little of the earnest pursuit of true learning. Many college freshmen are confused when faced with issues and problems to be analyzed and discussed rather than answered. Many think of education as a routine procedure of indoctrination that provides them with the answers to their problems as well as the answers to any other issues. Some think of education as little more than the receiving of facts and the retaining of such facts long enough to put them down on an examination paper. Although college students generally may criticize



the routine recitation type of education, many resist and are hostile to any change in that type of education. When administrators at one Eastern university changed the marking system so that the number of possible grades was cut from the ridiculous number of twelve to about half that number, the students raised such a protest that the original marking system was reinstated!

The college population in the United States has jumped from less than 250,000 in 1900 to a high of 2,295,000 in 1950. The college freshman is becoming increasingly representative of the total population, but many institutions are still geared for the type of college student they admitted a century ago. The ivory-tower attitude of seclusion from reality took a heavy body blow from the millions of veterans who swarmed onto the campuses after the Second World War, but it was by no means a fatal blow. The young student may find that in entering college he is stepping into an almost entirely different culture, and he will be in need of assistance if he is going to adjust to it. This class conflict is very evident in the public schools, where many middle-class teachers may try unknowingly to force their culture and their pattern of values upon children who come from the lower and upper socioeconomic structures. As more and more students from the lower socioeconomic classes enter colleges, this conflict will become more evident at the college level.

Just as some students are in high school only because the law keeps them there, so some students are in college only because their culture says they must have a college degree in order to be respectable. In the minds of many students the pointlessness of some high-school courses is equaled by the pointlessness of many college courses. Even some of those students who take the traditional "general" education at a liberal-arts college will find that, for many of them, it is general in little more than name. It is nothing that they can tie in with their future living to their own satisfaction, although they may be told that it does have a bearing on their future; and, indeed, it may actually have a very important bearing on their future. The "general college" is a more recent attempt to fit a college offering to the reality of the situation, but it is only a beginning of the curriculum revision that is needed if we are to accept the general concept that almost one-half of the population of the United States has the ability to complete fourteen years of schooling.

Another factor that makes the 1953 college student not quite the same as his 1900 colleague is his age. As the pressure for education increases, more and more older people are becoming interested in an education. Mother as a freshman is by no means the rarity that she may have been a few decades ago, and the personnel program should take into account the fact that, while the vast majority of the students will cluster around

the average age, there will be at least a few students who are a good deal older than the average. We cannot assume that because the student is older he is automatically better adjusted. There is a good chance that the older student will be carrying more in the way of responsibility, and he may be in need of a particular kind of help.

Increased enrollments usually mean bigger classes, and a student who has been used to being with a group of twenty students may be somewhat overcome when he discovers that he is one of several hundred, none of whom are known personally to the instructor. The large-class problem is sometimes met by the adding of part-time instructors; but these instructors too frequently prove to be ineffective teachers or, even if good teachers, lack the prestige the student may want to find in his professors. There are some students who feel that it is better to be one of several hundred listening to someone who knows what he is talking about, than to be one of twenty listening to someone who knows little. Either situation, however, may cause trouble for the bewildered student. This cafeteria style of education makes a close personal relationship between student and instructor almost impossible; while every instructor should be responsible for some students, an instructor who has large classes cannot possibly know all of the students in those classes. The personnel-services program should ease the student's mind to some extent and help him to realize that, even though he may be completely ignored in some classes, there are people in the college who are very much concerned with him as an individual. Orientation week might be a time to point out to the freshman that with such large classes even the best of instructors will find it impossible to get to know their students.

Increased enrollment has brought about a tremendous increase in the number of course offerings. It is a relatively simple matter to have a new course added to the total offering, but frequently the only way to have a course removed from the program is to await the death of the instructor! The number of courses offered in large institutions runs into the thousands, and many students find little satisfaction in being told to "take these two courses and pick the other three for yourself." Too frequently students take courses where there is a great deal of overlapping and omit courses that they should have taken.

Students who go to a school or college in a university sometimes find that when they take courses in another school or college in the same university they are regarded as foreigners and might as well be in a different institution. This feeling of lack of acceptance by instructors is far more common among students than many instructors realize, and some freshmen, particularly, are overcome by the cold aloofness of the big university. It is difficult for the freshman to feel that he belongs, and a

prime task of the personnel program is to offset the possible coldness of the institution and to help the student to feel that he is an important part of even a 20,000-student university.

3. *The rapid advancement in the understanding of human growth and behavior.* Research in the past few decades has not only given us a greater understanding of John Smith, college student, but it has also raised strong doubts as to the efficacy of many of the procedures followed by instructors and administrators in his college education. The rapid development of counseling and testing centers, speech clinics, and reading clinics, and the steady increase in the number of college workers engaged in personnel tasks indicate an increased awareness of the needs of the college student. In an increasing number of colleges the student will find skilled personnel ready to help him to understand himself so that he can work more effectively. All students should have an understanding of the personnel services that are available. In most institutions these services would include admissions, vocational guidance, counseling, religious services, student activities, housing and dining services, health services, student aid, and teaching. The orientation program is the logical place for the introduction of the student to these services.

The personnel program should also have as one of its functions the detection of those students in need of attention. The statistics showing the number of emotionally disturbed individuals in the country are most impressive, and obviously many of these disturbed individuals are being admitted to colleges. It would be most unjust if neurosis were to be considered the basis for the refusal of admission to college, since the unhappy, but intelligent and skilled, neurotic is one who may contribute much to society. It is equally true, however, that while a certain kind of neurotic might contribute much and be most effective as a researcher in the field of chemistry, he might be a menace in the classroom or in a hospital ward. A program of study might be a means either of lessening or of increasing his disturbance.

No college administrator can ignore the statistics that show that approximately half of the patients occupying hospital beds are mental cases rather than physical cases, that over one-third of the men rejected for the armed forces in the Second World War were rejected for personality reasons, and that an even larger proportion of those who were discharged were discharged because of personality disturbances. We accept such disturbed individuals as students, and the personnel program should provide, for many of them, the experiences that will make them better people, able to live more effectively in their society.

All student-personnel services should, of course, be concerned with the needs of the more normal students, since all students have basic needs and desires that must be satisfied if they are to progress in a satisfactory man-



ner. Although there is some differentiation between needs, and they can be broken down into different categories, such as physical, social, and ego, they are, nevertheless, interactive. The meeting of one need usually aids in the meeting of another, and, similarly, frustration with regard to the satisfaction of one need usually has a frustrating effect on the total personality. The personnel program must attempt to meet the general needs of all students and the specific needs of some students. From the disgruntled and unhappy student there will be little in the way of achievement either in college or in postcollege career.

## THE NEED FOR EVALUATION

There are at least two basic reasons for the necessity of a continuing evaluation of the student-personnel services offered in every college and university. The first of these is a matter of professional pride. No professional worker can accept as the truth anything that has not stood the test of scientific logic. He cannot be happy about using questionable techniques and methods because there is apparently nothing better and because they seem to work out effectively. He may agree that he is using techniques that have little to show in the way of validation, but he is not satisfied with the use of such techniques and will continually try to devise ways and means of evaluating their effectiveness. The first basic reason, then, is self-evident. As a matter of professional ethics no personnel worker can be satisfied with what he does unless there is valid evidence to indicate the positive effect of his labors. In 1938 O'Shea<sup>1</sup> expressed this need with regard to counseling:

There is urgent need for reality in thinking in college counseling. There is, in other words, a necessity for finding criteria which will steady the counselor and serve notice upon him as to whether he is actually helping the student forward or whether he is pushing him back into less successful adjustments than he displayed before. Criteria for the elaborate and subtle outcomes which are hoped for in college counseling are . . . conspicuously and acutely lacking. . . .

The tremendous expansion of college personnel services since the end of the Second World War has made the professional need for evaluation even greater, even though evaluation has made strides since the above words were written. One does not have to go back too many years to the day when "educational research" meant little more than unsubstantiated opinion or point of view. Evidence for the validity of a method often consisted of one individual giving his opinion that, for him, a method "worked." Strides have been made in the last few decades, but even today

<sup>1</sup> O'Shea, Harriett E., "Essentials of Counseling," *Report of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the American College Personnel Association*, 1938, p. 43.

the major research being carried on is in a few of the larger colleges and universities. There are scores of colleges throughout the country where there is little evidence of any definite plan at least to attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of the services being offered.

The reasons that are offered for this lack of evaluation cannot be dismissed lightly. Evaluating the effects of a personnel service such as counseling cannot be compared with the evaluation of the physical effects of a dosage of three different kinds of pills. The researcher in personnel work is dealing with more intangible variables than is his colleague in the area of the physical sciences. It is true that there has been some attempt to compartmentalize human behavior so that for every aspect of behavior that may arise there will be a specific reason and a specific action that should be taken. But human behavior cannot be compartmentalized, and the personnel worker must devise new techniques and methods of evaluation, rather than merely copy those which have been effective for physical scientists. Then, of course, there are many colleges—probably most colleges—that have nothing in the way of a research budget, and little in the way of research personnel. Even in those institutions where there are funds for research and the services of skilled personnel many of the evaluative tools used are, at best, inadequate and questionable.

These are logical and understandable reasons for the lack of research and evaluation in student-personnel work, but they must be thought of as nothing more than barriers to be overcome. If college personnel work is to be considered as a professional task, then every personnel worker must strive continually, using whatever tools he may have, to validate the work that he performs. The improvement of the means of evaluation, as well as the services offered, must be a continuing challenge. There is no other choice for the professional college personnel worker.

A second reason for the need for evaluation of student-personnel services is more utilitarian, but no less basic. Those who buy a product want to know something about it, but at the present time the purchaser of personnel services is asked to buy largely on faith. This is not enough. If personnel workers cannot give some valid evidence to indicate the positive effects of their services, then those who pay for the services are naturally going to question their continuance. In cold dollars and cents a good professor can justify his existence by pointing to the number of students who think that his classes are worth while and are willing to pay money to be allowed to attend them. A personnel worker can very seldom justify the existence of his job on such a dollars-and-cents basis, and, when institutions are looking for every possible means of paring the budget, those services which cannot justify their existence in the eyes of the administration will be the first to go. It is not enough to recite a code of ethics or to point to the moral necessity of services concerned with the welfare

of the students. The existence of college student-personnel services is at stake. If they cannot prove their worth, they should, and probably will, disappear from the American college scene.

## METHODS OF EVALUATION

Personnel work in institutions of higher learning has now reached such a point of professional status that personnel workers can no longer be satisfied with vague statements as to the effectiveness of their work. There is general agreement as to the need for personnel services, but the methods used to indicate the validity of the programs supposedly satisfying this need may be questioned. The methods used in institutions throughout the country are many and varied, ranging from the completely personal and subjective to the highly scientific and objective, using the best available in the way of valid and reliable instruments for measurement. Even in the latter situation, however, the results are by no means conclusive, nor are they likely ever to be conclusive as long as the service or program being evaluated is concerned with changes in human behavior.

The standard and traditional method of evaluation in educational circles is to make a survey to indicate the extent to which various personnel services are being offered. A good example of a carefully constructed survey instrument is the "Recommended Standards for Student Personnel Services and Evaluative Criteria" issued by the Committee on Studies and Standards of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. In addition to indicating the existence of a service this instrument makes use of a rating scale, ranging from 0 to 5, to indicate how well the service has been developed and is functioning. A check mark in Column 0 means that the service is not provided. A check mark in Column 1 indicates the lowest state of development; and a check mark in Column 5, the highest.

This instrument, one of the best of its kind, suffers from two serious defects. The first is the weakness of the rater, whether he is the personnel worker rating the effectiveness of his own services or an outside member of an evaluation team. The former is obviously subject to his own bias, and even the most experienced and professional member of an evaluation team will agree that the accuracy of his check mark, resulting from a few hours of questioning and observation, is to be challenged. A second weakness is that, from a functional point of view, the checking of a statement indicating the existence of a service is often meaningless. Thus most institutions might check an item such as "A required orientation course is provided for freshmen," but even though there are numerous subitems it would still be extremely difficult to indicate the degree of development of the service, let alone to indicate its effect. The indication of the



existence of a service is really no evaluation at all, since the major evaluative question has to do with the effect of the service. If a real evaluation tends to point out that there are apparently no differences in change between those students who have experienced counseling and those who have not, then the checking of an item indicating that a counseling service is provided is obviously meaningless. It may be meaningful to indicate that a service is not provided; it is much less meaningful to indicate that a service is being provided without any indication of the effects of the provision of that service. In a survey of a number of colleges in the Middle West, the author found a wide difference between what administrators said were provided in the way of student-personnel services and what students said they had experienced in the way of services. It was not unusual to have an administrator refer to some service as being experienced by every freshman student, and then have a good proportion of the freshmen indicate that they had never even heard of the service. On some occasions colleges that on a check-list evaluation would appear in a very poor light were apparently achieving the basic objectives of personnel work more effectively than other institutions that appeared on an evaluation form to have an effective program of student-personnel services. The survey method of evaluation does not answer the basic pragmatic question: Does it work?

The limitation of the evaluation of student-personnel services to the survey method is probably the reason for the astonishing lack of accumulation of any real evidence to indicate the actual effects of different personnel services. Too frequently in the past college administrators have been satisfied to point out that their institution did have a student-personnel program without paying much attention to the effect of the program on the recipients of the services. This is pointed out by the large number of theses of a survey nature in the field of educational research. Teachers will frequently be found writing a master's thesis consisting of a survey having no relationship whatever to the work that they are doing, without giving any thought to the possibility of doing some research on the effects of their work. Many college teachers have a difficult time finding a valid answer to the student question, "Why should I take this course?" College personnel workers find it equally difficult to answer the "why" of the service that they offer.

A much more accurate means of evaluation is the scientific method that has been used by the physical scientists for some time. As described by Travers,<sup>2</sup> this consists of "defining carefully the objectives that are to be achieved, specifying the group in whom they are to be achieved, developing instruments for measuring the extent to which these objectives

<sup>2</sup> Travers, Robert M. W., "A Critical Review of Techniques for Evaluating Guidance," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 9:213, Summer, 1949.



are achieved, and finally carrying through the program and then measuring its actual outcomes." Basic for any evaluation is the formulation of objectives, the development of processes by means of which these objectives may be achieved, the development of criteria which will indicate the accomplishment of these objectives, and the development of tools and instruments capable of measuring the extent to which the criteria are being met.

The basic objectives of student-personnel work are known to all college personnel workers. They have been set forth by the American Council on Education in its revised edition of *The Student Personnel Point of View*<sup>3</sup> as follows:

- The student achieves orientation to his college environment. . . .
- The student succeeds in his studies. . . .
- He finds satisfactory living facilities. . . .
- The student achieves a sense of belonging to the college. . . .
- The student learns balanced use of his physical capacities. . . .
- The student progressively understands himself. . . .
- The student understands and uses his emotions. . . .
- The student develops lively and significant interests. . . .
- The student achieves understanding and control of his financial resources. . . .
- The student progresses toward appropriate vocational goals. . . .
- The student develops individuality and responsibility. . . .
- The student discovers ethical and spiritual meaning in life. . . .
- The student learns to live with others. . . .
- The student progresses toward satisfying and socially acceptable sexual adjustments. . . .
- The student prepares for satisfying, constructive post college activity. . . .

Like most objectives these goals are broad and vague. What, for example, are the usual means by which the student supposedly "achieves orientation to his college environment"? He listens to talks from faculty members and students, he attends various rallies and social activities, he is taken on a tour of the campus, and he has his first experience in an orientation course that will run throughout the year. But such experiences cannot be considered as criteria. What might be considered as criteria indicating that the students as a group are being successfully oriented to their college life would be such evidences as a low dropout rate during the freshman year, a happy group situation existing among dormitory freshmen, and constructive participation by freshmen in the improvement of student life in the university. However, even if the above items are acceptable as criteria that indicate that the students are being successfully

<sup>3</sup> *The Student Personnel Point of View*, American Council on Education Studies, 1949, Series VI, Vol. XIII, No. 13, Washington, pp. 6-11.

adjusted to college life, two further questions must be kept in mind. Is there any way that the existence of the situations mentioned above can be measured, and what evidence is there that these situations were brought about by the orientation services? The latter question can be answered only by a controlled experiment where the only variable will be the experiencing of the orientation services. The answer to the former question is dependent upon the existence of valid and reliable means of measurement. When the personnel worker in a controlled experiment can use valid and reliable measures to determine the extent of achievement of measurable criteria, which have been accepted as indicators of the achievement of the objectives of personnel work, then he can answer the question, "Why do you have this service?"

A study of the literature on evaluation indicates general agreement as to methods of evaluation. Froehlich,<sup>4</sup> in an extensive review of the literature on the evaluation of guidance services, suggests the following categories into which evaluative methods might be placed:

1. External criteria, the do-you-know-this? method
2. Follow-up, the what-happened-then? method
3. Client opinion, the what-do-you-think? method
4. Expert opinion, the "Information Please" method
5. Specific techniques, the little-by-little method
6. Within-group changes, the before-and-after method
7. Between-group changes, the what's-the-difference? method

These categories have been somewhat enlarged and modified by Hahn and MacLean,<sup>5</sup> who submit the following as methods of evaluation: (1) generalized program evaluations, (2) evaluation of specific counseling tools and techniques, (3) evaluation by counselees, (4) evaluation by problem type, (5) evaluation by faculty, (6) evaluation by measurement of group changes, (7) evaluation through long-range and follow-up studies, (8) counselor self-evaluation.

Dressel<sup>6</sup> sees no need for a lengthy list of categories of evaluation and classifies all evaluation studies into three major types: "(1) Appraisal of Group Development. (2) Appraisal of Individual Development. (3) Appraisal by External Opinion."

All of these are completely logical and acceptable as methods of evaluation, but it is unlikely that there will ever be constructed a set of measurements which will indicate the effect of any one personnel service on any

<sup>4</sup> Froehlich, Clifford R., *Evaluating Guidance Procedures: A Review of Literature*, Washington: U.S. Office of Education, 1949, p. 2.

<sup>5</sup> Hahn, Milton E., and Malcolm S. MacLean, *General Clinical Counseling in Educational Institutions*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950, pp. 345-363.

<sup>6</sup> Dressel, Paul L., "Personnel Services in High Schools and Colleges," *Occupations*, 29:337, February, 1951.

one individual student. A human being cannot be guaranteed to react in a certain way to a certain set of stimuli, and what is a "good" reaction for one student may be a "bad" reaction for another. Every personnel worker, nevertheless, can at least attempt to determine the effect of a service on an individual student without attempting to be critical about the effect. In the determination of the effect, however, the personnel worker may run into more than semantic difficulties. One of the objectives of student group activities, for example, might be the development of the capacity to make worthy use of leisure time. It should not be too difficult to determine how an individual is making use of his leisure time, but it is quite another matter to determine a "worthy" use of leisure time. What is a worthy use of leisure time to a New Englander who lives in a house that has been in his family for generations, may not be a worthy use of leisure time to one who lives in a new housing development in Chicago's South Side. What the New Englander himself considers to be a worthy use of leisure time might not be so regarded by his neighbors or even by his wife. No researcher can ignore the fact that we live in a society of relative values, and, in evaluating student-personnel services, he has the difficult task of attempting to objectify data that are anything but objective.

Most personnel workers have little in the way of funds or time for research purposes, but this does not lessen the need for the evaluation of the services offered. What can actually be done by Counselor Smith, who works in a small college and is interested in the evaluation of the counseling service that is his contribution to the total college student-personnel-services program?

Counselor Smith will find that a generally accepted objective of counseling is to aid the student to gain insight so that he can come to understand and accept himself, and consequently move in the direction of greater self-determination and increased capacity for the acceptance of responsibility and freedom. Before considering criteria that will indicate the achievement of this objective he will note that the degree of change is, after all, the basic measure. There is obviously no such thing as the blanket gaining of insight *per se*. The gaining of insight is a relative matter that will vary with each individual. There is no person whose living could not be improved by a further understanding of himself, but neither is there any end point where total understanding is achieved. It is extremely difficult to state flatly that counseling has been either "successful" or "unsuccessful." In the long run the student who experiences the counseling is the one who must come to evaluate what that counseling has meant for himself. His evaluation may not always agree with that of the counselor; and there may be some question as to which is more valid: the expressed feeling of the client that he is better, that he is happier, that he can see things more clearly, or the counselor's use of external criteria which seem



to indicate that there is no positive change. The two do not always agree.

The counselor may use three methods to determine change that has occurred as a result of counseling, and his criteria will be built around these methods. He will be careful to make use of matched and controlled groups, so that if changes are detected by the use of these methods he can be sure that the changes are a result of the counseling process and not of some unknown factor.

1. *Self-evaluation.* The student himself may indicate the sort of changes that he feels or thinks have occurred. He may do this in a variety of ways. Changes may be indicated by comparing his answers on personality inventories with answers he had given prior to counseling. Recordings of counseling sessions may indicate his feelings regarding the sort of changes that may be occurring. In talking with faculty members and other students he may frequently discuss changes in such things as the ease with which he can participate in group discussions, his feelings about the rights of others, his capacity to accept criticism with less personal disturbance, and so on. Such statements may or may not be accurate, but they do indicate the student's own feeling about his progress.

2. *Group evaluation.* The extent to which a student has become more mature and more capable of positive action may be measured by his fellows. They may indicate in their conversation that he is much easier to get along with and that he does not seem to want to argue as much as before. They may generally speak positively about the student, whereas they formerly complained about him. They may indicate their positive evaluation by asking him to participate in more activities. They may ask him to take over as a leader in certain student activities. They may elect him to positions of honor. They may begin to emulate his actions. Group evaluation is as opinionated as self-evaluation, but it is the opinion of many about someone else rather than the opinion of one about himself. It, too, could be inaccurate, but the evaluation of each individual by his peers is of vital importance to the future welfare of that individual.

3. *The actions of the individual.* The student may begin to participate in student activities and in class discussions. He may be observed spending more time in helping other students and working for people rather than for himself. There may be a decrease in such actions as cutting classes or being continually late for them. The student may show more concern with personal appearance. He may laugh more and play more instead of being a grim, silent worker.

None of these methods, of course, will give absolute answers. But, if they are taken together, and if other factors remain constant, they can be used by Counselor Smith to evaluate the effectiveness of his counseling. If student Brown indicates that he can see things much more clearly and that he is a happier and more contented person, if his peers indicate by

their actions that they think that he has changed for the better, and if a professional personnel worker finds that his actions are indicative of a better adjustment, then the counselor is justified in saying that for student Brown the counseling process has been effective and worth while. It is true, of course, that at least part of mankind's progress must be attributed to unhappy and neurotic individuals. But if a slower rate of evolution is the price of greater happiness for all men, then surely it would be worth paying.

## THE IMPROVEMENT OF METHODS OF EVALUATION

The improvement of student-personnel services in each institution must be a personal challenge to every personnel worker in every institution of higher learning. Improvement will not come if the greater majority of college personnel workers are content to sit and wait until better methods and techniques of evaluation are devised by someone else. Personnel workers may follow broad general principles of evaluation, and they may use acceptable methods, but for each institution special techniques must be devised that will be effective only for that particular institution. This can only be done if every college personnel worker, including the teacher, feels that evaluation is his business.

Dressel<sup>7</sup> has offered some suggestions for the improvement of evaluation:

1. Start with an all-institutional statement of objectives.
2. Assign responsibility for the various objectives to the appropriate parts of the educational program.
3. Keep a wide range of objectives in mind.
4. Do not lose sight of knowledge and of critical thinking as outcomes of the activities of personnel services.
5. Look for possible inadequacies in tests and devices in common use.
6. Be slow to replace long-term goals by immediate criteria without critical examination of the matter.
7. Lay out a master plan for evaluation so that, in the enthusiasm for one type of evaluation or one objective, its relative importance in a total evaluation program is not overlooked.
8. Seek advice on experimental design and associated statistical treatment.
9. Involve as many personnel workers as possible in an evaluation study.

These are sound considerations to keep in mind in the improvement of any evaluation program, as are those mentioned by Rackham when he discussed the evaluation of college student-personnel programs at the annual convention of the American College Personnel Association in Chicago in

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 335-337.

the spring of 1951. He suggested the following as general considerations:<sup>8</sup>

1. The student personnel services program should be an integral part of the total educational program of the institution which it serves. . . .
2. A student personnel services program should be judged as a whole and not simply as the sum of its separate parts. . . .
3. Since change is a universal law, any adequate program will possess a flexibility which permits it to adapt itself to varying problems and objectives.
4. Personnel programs may differ from each other noticeably. . . .
5. The effectiveness of any student personnel services program must in the last analysis rest upon scientific evidence and concrete facts rather than upon untried assumptions and unsupported personal opinions. . . .

For every personnel worker, the following principles would appear worthy of consideration in any attempt to evaluate the institutional program of student-personnel services:

1. The objectives of the student-personnel services must be clearly stated and understood by all university personnel. These objectives must be in keeping with the objectives of the total educational program if there is to be any hope of their achievement. The student is bound to be the loser in an institution where the teachers are dedicated to the improvement of the mind while the other personnel workers are dedicated to the improvement of the whole student. The student will be even worse off if this difference in objectives results in an open hostility between teachers and other personnel workers. The first task of a personnel administrator in any institution is to work with all faculty members so that the basic objectives of the entire staff are the same. Such harmony will not be achieved by any attempt to impose the ideas of personnel administrators upon the rest of the faculty. It is better that a faculty member openly state his objection to a certain point of view rather than having him outwardly acquiesce but inwardly resist bitterly. The administration must accept opposing points of view from different faculty members if it is to expect them to come to accept in time some of the beliefs of the administration. If an evaluation is to determine the degree to which the objectives of the student-personnel services are being met, however, it is assumed that these are objectives accepted by all faculty members as worthy of achievement.

2. Criteria must be established. Many of the objectives of personnel work are vague, often to the point of being meaningless, and it is extremely difficult to measure directly the extent to which they have been achieved. The criteria used must be valid in that there is general agreement that their achievement is acceptable as an indication of the achievement of the objective. In addition to being valid in this respect they must

<sup>8</sup> Rackham, Eric N., "The Need for Adequate Criteria When Evaluating College Student Personnel Programs," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 11:697, Winter, 1951.

also be valid as criteria. For example, the recently acquired ability of the student to be accepted as a member of the group might be proposed as one criterion that would indicate partial achievement of the objective of counseling, namely, the development of greater insight so that there can be an understanding and an acceptance of the self. There must first be agreement that this ability would be acceptable as an indication of the development of greater insight, but there must also be agreement that it is a valid criterion. The acceptance by the group might be taken as an indication of successful counseling, but if there were no way to measure whether there has been any more or less acceptance by the group, then this would not be valid as a *criterion*, even though it was accepted as an *indication* of the achievement of the objective of counseling. Similarly, more positive reports by teachers who are trained personnel workers might be acceptable as a measure of the success of counseling, but they might be thrown out as criteria in some colleges because the reports of the faculty were frequently subjective and biased. There may thus be an element of human judgment in the acceptance of an item suitable as a criterion, and in its acceptance as a valid criterion.

3. Once the criteria have been established, the research methods must be selected or set up. The method used will depend upon the service being evaluated, and it will also depend upon the institution in which the service is being evaluated. Three broad classifications of methods, each of which would encompass numerous techniques, are: self-evaluation, evaluation by the group, and evaluation by a study of the actions of the individual.

4. Standard and acceptable research procedure will be considered as essential. Thus a survey of the existence of a student-personnel service cannot be considered as a form of evaluation, since the existence of the service gives no indication whatever of the effect of the service. Any evaluation is concerned with effect rather than with existence. It is true, of course, that the lack of numerous services would be an important factor to be considered in the evaluation of a program of student-personnel services, but a service can hardly be evaluated if it does not exist. If the behavior of individuals or groups is being used to indicate the effects of a service, the individuals and the groups will be matched and controlled, so that those being observed are in every way comparable with the exception of the one variable which is being evaluated. In a follow-up study every attempt will be made to see that observed changes are caused only by the factor being evaluated, and not by numerous other indeterminable items or experiences. Samplings will be valid, and broad generalizations will never be made on the basis of a minute and invalid sampling. When the sampling is stratified, any generalizations will refer only to the group represented by the stratified sampling. Every precaution will be taken so that a ran-



dom sampling will be truly random. Actually, it is extremely difficult to get a sampling that is randomly representative of the entire student population of even a small institution.

5. It will be continually kept in mind that there is no one standard of evaluation for services, for programs, or for institutions. Any predictions or recommendations based on the results of an evaluation will be tempered with the thought that even the best of the methods and techniques of evaluation available to personnel workers are subject to many limitations.

6. The improvement of the means of evaluation will be accepted as a challenge by all personnel workers. It will be hoped that one of the outcomes in any program of evaluation will be the provision of still better means of evaluation.

## CHAPTER 2 *The Organization and Administration of Student-personnel Services*

It is interesting to note that in the early literature on college student-personnel services the two problems that received probably the least attention were the two most essential to the successful operation of a college personnel program. These were the evaluation of personnel services and the organization and administration of the student-personnel program. It is obvious that without an efficient, skilled, and dedicated group of personnel administrators there is little likelihood that personnel services will be provided effectively, or even provided at all. Even in some institutions where there has been a thorough study to determine what services must be provided to satisfy particular student needs, there is a haphazardness about the organization and administration of those services. In the past decade, however, there has been a marked change in the entire concept of the administration of student-personnel services. Before noting this changing concept, it might be well to look at the general development of student-personnel services in institutions of higher learning throughout the United States.

### THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENT-PERSONNEL SERVICES

Within the past few decades the student-personnel point of view in higher education has been written about, talked about, and argued about to such an extent that every college worker surely must at least have heard about it. The general philosophy of the student-personnel point of view was concisely stated in 1937 by the American Council on Education in its brochure *The Student Personnel Point of View*. A revised edition of this brochure, published in 1949, presented the student-personnel point of view as follows: <sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *The Student Personnel Point of View*, American Council on Education Studies, 1949, Series VI, Vol. XIII, No. 13, Washington, p. 1.

The student personnel point of view encompasses the student as a whole. The concept of education is broadened to include attention to the student's well-rounded development—physically, socially, emotionally and spiritually, as well as intellectually. The student is thought of as a responsible participant in his own development and not as a passive recipient of an imprinted economic, political, or religious doctrine, or vocational skill. As a responsible participant in the societal processes of our American democracy, his full and balanced maturity is viewed as a major end-goal of education, and, as well, a necessary means to the fullest development of his fellow-citizens.

This is the personnel philosophy, and any service which aids in the implementation of that philosophy might logically be called a personnel service. The personnel services to be discussed in this book are those concerned with admissions, orientation, counseling, occupations, health, student aid, religion, housing and dining, student activities, and teaching. Teaching has usually been omitted in any discussion of student-personnel services, but it is included here since it is obviously a personnel service and probably has a greater impact on a greater number of students than any other service.

The changing emphasis on the purpose of higher education should not be taken to mean that there is something new about a philosophy of higher education that stresses the growth of the much-maligned "whole" student rather than intellectual growth alone. When higher education was first introduced into the American colonies it followed a European pattern of centuries, where the concern was with the development of the total student, and equal attention was paid to his social, religious, moral, and intellectual growth. The rise of German education in the nineteenth century, however, brought an increasing emphasis on intellectual growth alone, and American universities were quick to follow the German pattern. By the beginning of the twentieth century the pendulum was beginning to swing back, and half a century later at least an important segment of the college faculty was again concerned with the total development of the student.

A few centuries ago, however, there was very little other than a "liberal" education available for college students. Their teachers were usually philosophers or theologians. Today a large proportion of our college teachers have been trained for scientific research rather than college teaching, and these are the individuals who teach an increasing number of American college youth. It is interesting to note that, in this time of national stress, while educators may be increasingly interested in a "whole," "liberal," or "general" education, the students who are to experience this education are much less enthusiastic about it. In comparing total enrollments it may be noted that the proportion of students in liberal-arts colleges has decreased, while that in institutions concerned with technological

training has increased. This may be only a temporary change, but for the present, at least, the American college student apparently sees more need of a scientific than of a liberal education. This complicates the task of the personnel worker, who is concerned with the development of a "whole" student, who, in turn, may be concerned only with his own intellectual and occupational security.

By the 1920's and 1930's personnel work, or guidance, as it was first called, was receiving increasing attention in colleges and universities throughout the land. In women's colleges the first mention of organized guidance as a function of such institutions seems to have been a part of an expressed program of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, which was founded in 1882. At that time there were seventeen members from eight colleges in the association. Over twenty years ago Woody,<sup>2</sup> in referring to this association, mentioned that the guidance of college women was one of the problems in which they were interested. The early interest in guidance in women's colleges was greatly motivated by the fact that women were beginning to take their place in the working world, and the need for occupational preparation was becoming more apparent. The place of personnel programs in junior colleges was described by such individuals as Proctor, Whitney, Eels, and Stanton.<sup>3</sup> Much of this earlier guidance in senior colleges as well as junior colleges was highly vocational in nature, but there is evident in the literature of twenty and thirty years ago a gradually broadening concept of a total student-personnel-services program. In 1926 Hopkins<sup>4</sup> described the functions of personnel work as being the selection and matriculation of students, personnel service, curriculum and teaching research, and the coordination of various agencies concerned with work with individuals. These services have been enlarged and altered somewhat over the years, as indicated in the writings of such personnel workers as Townsend, Strang, Lloyd-Jones and Smith, Reed, and Erickson and Smith.<sup>5</sup> In a more recent contribution Brouwer gives

<sup>2</sup> Woody, Thomas, *A History of Women's Education in the United States*, New York: The Science Press, 1929, Vol. II, p. 190.

<sup>3</sup> Proctor, William M. (ed.), *The Junior College: Its Organization and Administration*, Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1927; Whitney, Frederick Lamson, *The Junior College in America*, Greeley, Colo.: Colorado State Teachers College, 1928; Eels, Walter C., *The Junior College*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931; Stanton, Crawford C., "A Junior College Personnel Program," *Junior College Journal*, 2:309-313, March, 1932.

<sup>4</sup> Hopkins, L. B., "Personnel Procedure in Education," *The Educational Record Supplement*, No. 3, October, 1926, p. 6.

<sup>5</sup> Townsend, Marion E., *The Administration of Personnel Services in Teacher Training Institutions of the United States*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932; Strang, Ruth, *Personal Development and Guidance in College and Secondary School*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1934; Lloyd-Jones, Esther M., and Margaret Ruth Smith, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938; Reed, Anna Y., *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education*, Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1944; Erickson, Clifford E., and



a broad general classification of personnel services.<sup>6</sup> He refers to the extra-class life, the classroom experience, and specialized services. In the most recent book on this subject Wrenn<sup>7</sup> emphasizes counseling services and group experiences. Part II of his book is devoted to counseling services, while under "Group Experiences," in Part III, there are chapters dealing with student activities, orientation of new students, and housing and dining services. In Part IV, under "Further Student Personnel Services," he has grouped health services, financial aid, and job placement.

This increasing consciousness of the development of the whole student is noticeable in all types of institutions. Many liberal-arts colleges are becoming increasingly concerned with the development of social responsibility and the establishment of the foundations for a successful career. No longer is there emphasis on knowledge for the sake of knowledge. Vocational colleges are recognizing their responsibility in broad educational objectives rather than in narrow vocational concepts. For example, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology has recently established a School of Humanities and Social Studies, which will have the responsibility for providing the strongest possible program in general education for students studying in the fields of science, engineering, and architecture. Schools of education are now interested in developing as teachers well-rounded adults who are keen students of human behavior and are equipped with the skills and the techniques, as well as the knowledge, to aid those children who are deviates and to help to prevent others from becoming deviates. Schools of nursing are no longer satisfied to turn out as nurses individuals who are little more than technicians, and schools of medicine are emphasizing the whole man, rather than one particular physical aspect of him.

There is a recognition in colleges throughout the land that the American college student of today is not the same as the college youth of a century ago. He is a different type of student living in a different world, and the old concept of higher education is no longer suitable. The newer concept of education is dedicated to the whole individual, and the specific services concerned with the welfare of that individual are no longer considered as extras to be tacked on the academic program. Student-personnel services are becoming more and more a part of the student's total education, and it is becoming increasingly difficult to differentiate between personnel and "other" services. It may even be that nonpersonnel services

---

Glenn E. Smith, *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1947.

<sup>6</sup> Brouwer, Paul J., *Student Personnel Services in General Education*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1949.

<sup>7</sup> Wrenn, C. Gilbert, *Student Personnel Work in Colleges*, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951.

will soon be limited to such activities as the care of buildings and grounds and the solution of the financial intricacies of university operation!

In many institutions student-personnel services have the status of orphans. They have no history and no tradition, and often they have been put into operation because of public pressure rather than because the administration of the college really believed that there was a need for them. Some personnel services in a college may be of long standing, while others have been recent additions. Most colleges, for example, have an admissions office, but many, until recently, have had little in the way of clinical counseling services. Many of the personnel services that have been a part of the college for a long time have only recently begun to be considered from the personnel point of view. Thus housing services can play a very important role in the total educational experience of the student, but in some colleges a dormitory is little more than a place where students eat and sleep. Sometimes it is even policed rigidly to see that regulations are carried out.

As colleges have expanded, student-personnel services have become more and more complicated. The health service in a small college may consist of a nurse and a part-time doctor working in a small room equipped with one cot. The health service of an institution of 20,000 students is often the equivalent of that of a well-staffed and well-equipped hospital.

Many institutions throughout the country still lack what would be considered the bare minimum of personnel services. Older institutions may find it difficult to change a pattern of education that has been in effect for one or two centuries. A younger institution has less to change, and it is easier to *adopt* the personnel point of view than to *change* to the personnel point of view. The concept of the performance of personnel services by professionally trained personnel workers would appear to have more meaning for administrators and faculty members in the Middle Western state universities than it has in the older private colleges in the East. It is interesting to note that in 1951 the American College Personnel Association had only approximately 7 per cent of its total membership in colleges and universities in New England, where the oldest and many of the largest institutions in the country are to be found. On the other hand, the state of Indiana alone supplied approximately 7 per cent of the total membership, while Illinois contributed about 10 per cent.

Services have often been added in a disjointed sort of manner without any great concern for the needs of the students and the feelings of the faculty members. Sometimes faculty members have been hostile and indifferent, while the students may have felt that the services were being imposed upon them. In some cases the organization and administration of these services became the job of an officer who was already loaded down with other tasks and who quite frequently had little understanding

of, or sympathy with, the student-personnel point of view; or it became the added responsibility of one who was imbued with the academic tradition, and who naturally enough would think of such services as secondary; or it became the responsibility of an autocratic administrator who would daily send forth his orders of the day; or, finally, it became the task of someone who was a fine person, but who lacked the knowledge, understanding, and skill that were essential if the task was to be well done. There is no doubt that in the past twenty years the administrators of personnel programs in some colleges have been individuals of such caliber. Under such circumstances it would be unlikely that the personnel program would function effectively.

The history of personnel administration in colleges and universities shows that it has often been a chaotic and poorly integrated procedure. It has ranged from complete decentralization, with no coordination or understanding among various personnel workers, to complete centralization with all the administrative aspects completely dominated and controlled by one figure. It has often been carried out by individuals who have had no training in the field, by those who are overloaded with other tasks, or by those who were chosen for the position solely because of the people they knew.

Thus the job of the personnel administrator is not necessarily to develop a program of personnel services. It may be to pull together a series of disjointed and disorganized services into a coordinated program. It is also quite frequently a task of drawing together for a common purpose a group of workers who have been concerned only with their specific activity and who have had little feeling of belonging to the larger all-university program.

## A CHANGING CONCEPT OF ADMINISTRATION

As the lack of organization became more apparent, the literature on the subject began to emphasize the need for some individual to head up and direct the program of personnel services. The earlier writings generally supported a centralized form of administrative organization. In 1932, for example, after a study of teachers' colleges and normal schools, Townsend<sup>8</sup> recommended that a director of student personnel directly responsible to the president should be placed in charge of all those specialized functions which required the attention of a trained personnel executive. Townsend listed the following offices directly under the authority of the director of student personnel: the office of personnel research, the placement office, the follow-up office, the part-time employment office, and the offices of advisers to the student body. The dean of men and the dean of

<sup>8</sup> Townsend, *op. cit.*, pp. 81-82.



women were to be available for consultation, but they were not to be under the direct control of the director of student personnel. He also indicated that a trained personnel director was to be found in only 3 per cent of the institutions participating in the study.

In a survey of thirty-five colleges related to the Methodist Episcopal Church, carried out by Floyd Reeves<sup>9</sup> and others in 1929, 1930, and 1931, it was shown that there were at that time no such personnel officials as dean of students, director of student personnel, or director of guidance in the institutions studied.

On the other hand, a survey made by Walters<sup>10</sup> in 1932 showed that in seventy-one institutions of higher learning approximately one-third of the colleges with an enrollment up to 3,000 students, and more than three-fourths of the larger institutions, had personnel departments. Walters also indicated that in fifty-three out of sixty-six of the colleges there were full-time directors of personnel services.

In a study of fifteen colleges in Illinois the author found that four of them had a dean of the college with direct control over all academic and personnel activities. In three institutions the president had direct control over both academic and personnel activities; in six colleges there was a director of student personnel, who was responsible to the president; and in three other colleges the director of student personnel was responsible to the academic dean. In four of the seven institutions that had no director of student personnel the only official whom the researcher interviewed was the dean or the president. The fact that these officials made no move to refer him to other subordinate officers might be taken to indicate that neither organic decentralization (where subordinate officers make important final decisions) nor functional centralization (where one function is under the control of one, and only one, officer) was being effectively practiced. This attitude was in sharp contrast to that in certain other colleges where the dean or the president, while quite willing to discuss the situation in his college, felt that the researcher should be referred to the director of student personnel, who, in turn, arranged interviews with other officials concerned with various student-personnel services. This, in turn, would appear to indicate a more effective practicing of organic decentralization and functional centralization.

The establishment, or lack of establishment, of an administrative organization such as that recommended by Townsend is no doubt affected by the type of institution concerned. In Roman Catholic women's colleges, for example, the administrative heads of the majority of the faculty

<sup>9</sup> Reeves, Floyd W., et al., *The Liberal Arts College*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932, p. 84.

<sup>10</sup> Walters, J. E., "A Study of the Personnel Activities in the Colleges and Universities that Are Members of the American College Personnel Association," *Report of the Ninth Annual Meeting of the American College Personnel Association*, 1932, pp. 7-9.

are nuns, and there is more of a common denominator in the basic philosophy of both themselves and their superiors than is the case in a large public university. This feeling of oneness of purpose of all faculty members from teacher to president is bound to affect the administrative organization, as does the fact that one of the vows which a nun must take is that of obedience.

Again, in institutions in cities where a large proportion of the students live at home, it may be, as Walters <sup>11</sup> has stated, that the colleges feel that a personnel department is not necessary because of personnel facilities offered by the urban community and the home environment.

A summation of the Illinois study made by the author showed that only five of the fifteen institutions had a director of student personnel directly responsible to the president. In one of the institutions the present organization was set up in 1930, in another in 1939, in another in 1941, and in two others in 1946. In all the institutions except one, this director of student personnel carried a teaching load which varied from three to twelve hours a week. In three other colleges there was a director of student personnel, but he was responsible to the dean of the college. In seven institutions no such official as a director of student personnel was to be found.

The general feeling of need for a centralized form of control, with some dominant administrative head, was emphatically expressed in 1938 by Lloyd-Jones and Smith: <sup>12</sup>

No matter how many services the institution wishes to provide for its personnel program, no matter how these services are combined into constellations, no matter which ones are emphasized, no matter how adequately or inadequately it is possible to staff the various services, no matter the extent to which it is possible for the instructional staff to participate in the personnel program, the program must be headed up by some one person. This person should not only be an educator, broadly and thoroughly trained in the philosophy and method of personnel work, but he should also be an administrator with the ability to organize and operate a program.

A decade later Lloyd-Jones was not so certain that this complete form of centralization was the answer. She was aware of the growing criticism of the type of personnel organization that had been developing in colleges and universities, and in 1950 she was moved to write: <sup>13</sup>

It is time now, it seems to me, to develop new and more democratic patterns of personnel work. This pattern would be characterized by cooperative planning rather than by superimposed directions. It would be characterized by integrative rather than dominative relationships. It might well be that the chairman-

<sup>11</sup> Walters, *op. cit.*, pp. 7-8.

<sup>12</sup> Lloyd-Jones and Smith, *op. cit.*, pp. 37-38.

<sup>13</sup> Lloyd-Jones, Esther M., in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1949, p. 379.

ship of the personnel council that would be set up would rotate among several persons or alternate between two individuals on the council. It would involve participation of students to a greater degree in the consideration of planning for and direction of the personnel program.

Williams has indicated the advantages of a centralized form of organization in state-supported institutions of higher education, but he feels that these advantages are seldom realized:<sup>14</sup>

1. It is claimed that institutional funds will be expended with more wisdom if one board has charge of all expenditures. . . .
2. It is argued that undue competition for students will be reduced. . . .
3. It is assumed that the expanding needs of society for higher education can best be met by a central board. . . .
4. It is thought that the structure of state government will be simplified by the establishment of one central board to govern all state-supported higher education. . . .
5. It is claimed that political interference with educational affairs has been reduced in some states by the establishment of a central board.

McAllister,<sup>15</sup> however, points out that members of a central board would have to spend a great deal of time and energy and have a thorough knowledge of several institutions in order to be effective directors. He implies that this would be a very large task and argues that the present tendency is toward separate boards working in harmony and cooperation.

Hilton<sup>16</sup> presents the following arguments against the centralization of the organization of student-personnel services:

1. A single administrator must stand alone in his decisions on controversial issues. It would be better public relations and easier on the administrators to use a committee or commission.
2. If the dean of students takes the job, as is so often the case, his administrative work will keep him too busy to keep in touch with the students and obtain first-hand information on campus affairs.
3. The dean of students may be raised in position over other administrative officers, causing hard feelings.
4. Centralization frequently eliminates the only woman with an overview of the total campus.
5. It is good for the morale of women students to see a woman dean working on a par with a man.
6. Centralized organization is not so likely to foster initiative in other than the top administrator.

<sup>14</sup> Williams, Robert L., "A Single Board of Control for State Supported Higher Education," *School and Society*, 71:19, Jan. 14, 1950.

<sup>15</sup> McAllister, Charles E., *Inside the Campus: Mr. Citizen Looks at His Universities*, New York: Fleming H. Revell Company, 1948, p. 63.

<sup>16</sup> Hilton, M. Eunice, "The Organization of Student Personnel Services," *School and Society*, 68:26-28, July 10, 1948.



Becker,<sup>17</sup> in an answer to Hilton, points out some of the problems arising from decentralization. He refers to the friction that may arise between officers: counselors, for example, may blame the admission officers for admitting unqualified students. With reference to Hilton's suggestion that an assistant to the president could be available for advice if the president were busy, Becker proposes, with some logic, that this "assistant" be the personnel director.

Many of these arguments for and against the centralization of control seem to be somewhat superficial. Few of them take into account the element of human relations. Having a centralized form of control is no more a guarantee of dictatorship than a decentralized form of control is a guarantee of democracy in action. Centralization can be democratic and liberal and permissive, and decentralization can be chaotic and narrow. The structure of the organization should be decided strictly on the basis of what is best for the students. What form of administrative organization will ensure that the personnel services will be of the greatest benefit to the greatest number? This is the essential question.

If a centralized form of control is to be used, there is no reason why the administrative head should not count heavily on the assistance and counsel of faculty and student committees and of individual faculty members and students. Nor is there any reason why he should not seek the counsel and advice of his colleague, the academic dean. If he is a democratic and a secure administrator, he will be concerned with the ideas and the feelings of John Smith, college freshman, just as he is with the ideas and feelings of Dr. Smith, president of the university.

If personnel services are for students, then it is only logical that students should have some voice in the determination of the services to be provided and in the administration of the services after they are set up. Some services lend themselves more to student administration than do others. Thus an orientation program can be organized and administered almost entirely by students, whereas the administration of a health-service program would require more faculty attention. Even in health services, however, students should be members of decision-making committees, since they, more than anyone else, are aware of the long-run effectiveness of the health services being offered. Their understanding of student needs should be utilized. The objective of the administration, after all, is to develop a personnel program that will be a vital and essential part of the total education experienced by the students in the institution. The administration of personnel services should surely be influenced by the ideas of those individuals who experience them.

In a large institution the coordinator of personnel services will be an

<sup>17</sup> Becker, Harry A., "The Organization of Student Personnel Services," *School and Society*, 68:251-252, Oct. 9, 1948.

administrator, not a counselor or a teacher. He will not be expected to perform three functions, but if he is to be an effective administrator he will always keep in mind the basic fact that he works with and for people. He will keep his hand in the affairs of the university so that he will understand the feelings of the students and of his fellow faculty members. There is no reason why even a top administrator should not reserve part of his time for the performance of service tasks. A dean of students may be helped to keep in touch with the day-to-day problems of students and faculty by the performance of such tasks as attending student council meetings, teaching a class, acting as an information clerk during registration, and by having his door always open to students and faculty.

An administrator always faces the temptation to withdraw into the confines of his office, from where he may send out numerous notices with regard to policy and reappear periodically to preside at faculty meetings, which are sometimes inaccurately described as group discussions. Such administrators sometimes make themselves so inaccessible that neither students nor faculty bother to seek them out. Although this is sometimes the picture of the academic dean, it may also be the picture of the dean of students. A change of title does not result in a change of personality.

There should be no question as to whether the administrative head is a man or a woman. It is true, of course, that there are some male faculty members who would be disturbed if a woman was appointed to an administrative post above them; and there are some female faculty members who feel that girls are so distinctly different that even at the administrative level only a woman can effectively serve other women. At the service level, in some situations, a man may be more effective with men, and a woman may be more effective with women, but there is no valid reason why, at the administrative level, the sex of the faculty member should even be a consideration.

A centralized form of organization does not mean that all control and authority are taken away from the various heads of different personnel departments. The director of health services would continue to be responsible for the health services of the university. They are his job, and neither the performance of this task nor the responsibility for the performance of the task is taken away from him by the administrative head. The major difference is that he is directly responsible to a personnel man like himself, to one whose full-time job is the effective administration of personnel services. From a dean of students the director of health services will probably get more in the way of time and understanding than he will from either an academic dean or a president. There will be a much greater likelihood of fast and positive action in the solution of problems that may rest on the shoulders of the director of health services. The dean of students may also be able to help the director of health services to feel that he is one of a

group of cooperative workers who are concerned with services that directly relate to the well-being of the whole student.

Much of the criticism of centralization may be criticism of the personnel involved rather than of the method of organization. It is difficult to maintain the morale of a group of workers when there is no coordinating head, and it is equally difficult when the coordinator does not understand the problems and the difficulties of the workers. Even in small colleges, personnel services are big enough and important enough to warrant the full-time attention of an understanding student of human relations who is skilled in the service aspects of personnel work.

This primary emphasis on human relations and the relegating of the means of implementation to a secondary role is well stated by Brouwer<sup>18</sup> when he writes:

Democratic administration . . . is the use of power to attain the ends of the group when these ends are determined freely by members of the group. . . .

The primary problem of administration, therefore, regardless of who is the administrator, involves the integration of human effort toward the achievement of common ends. The secondary problem involves the devices by which this desirable integration may be achieved.

In a talk delivered to the American College Personnel Association in Chicago in 1948 Hopkins<sup>19</sup> recommended that in larger institutions the appointment of a new administrative figure be considered. This man would be an educational vice-president, whose first and most important job would be the bringing together, almost into one, of the instructional program and the personnel program.

If there were no personnel dean on the campus this would mean that the new officer would work with the academic dean to achieve the desired ends. If there were a personnel dean it might be presupposed that the academic dean and the personnel dean could not possibly comprehend and appreciate the special contributions and understanding that each has to offer. It would seem to be much more desirable that we recognize the fact that at the present time in higher education the tasks of the academic dean and the personnel dean are different, and while two people are needed to administer these two areas there is no reason why these individuals cannot work together. It may be that eventually all college faculty will be concerned with the total education of the students, and the point of view and the training and background of administrators will be very much the same. There is no particular reason why we cannot look forward to the day when one vice-president would be the administrator in charge of all student services, which would include such matters as teaching, the

<sup>18</sup> Brouwer, *op. cit.*, pp. 156-157.

<sup>19</sup> Hopkins, E. H., "The Essentials of a Student Personnel Program," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 8:435, Autumn, 1948.



curriculum offering, the financing of the institution, and so on. Obviously, the larger the size of the institution, the more difficult the task would become. Regardless of the size of the institution, however, the task of this administrator would basically be one of human relations. He would not have to be an expert in finance, in curriculum construction, in teaching, in counseling, or in housing. He would have, working with him, not under him, a dedicated group of people who were experts in their own field. They would all be working toward one end, and they would all be offering their particular talents and skills and understanding, for the achievement of that end. In such an institution the student-personnel point of view would have been completely accepted, and administration would become the task of helping individuals who work well together to work even more effectively to achieve their objective to the greatest possible extent.

Such an administrator will be less concerned with a schematic representation of the organization of the personnel services than with the attitudes and feelings of faculty members toward each other and toward the student body. He will be more concerned with a philosophy of education than with a mechanical set of principles. He may even know more about people and human behavior than he does about administration. His principles of operation will be strongly weighted in the direction of human understanding, and they might be found in the sort of questions that he will ask himself:

1. How does mental hygiene apply to me? Can I respect my own personality? Do I feel that I am worthy and that I have something to offer, or do I feel incapable of trusting my colleagues and accepting what they have to offer? Do I have any sort of insight into my own conduct, so that I am aware of why I say what I say, and why I do what I do? Do I have an objective attitude so that I can look at people and at things as they are, or is my thinking highly colored with my own bias and indoctrination? Do I have some sort of stable faith, a faith which includes a belief in the goodness of my fellow men and in their capacity to do good, even though they often do evil? Do I live completely in the past, because I am afraid of the future, or completely in the future, because I cannot accept the present, or do I profit from the past, and prepare for the future, but live today? Do I have the sense of humor which makes it easy for me to laugh with others, sometimes at myself, but never at others? Is my interest in other people altruistic, or do I work with people so that I can convert them to my way of thinking, or because I am afraid to be alone? Do I really enjoy the work that I am doing, or is my work merely another task that must be performed so that I can exist?

2. Has our personnel program resulted from the recognition of the need by both students and faculty? Did we survey student needs and build up a mutual feeling of trust between students, faculty, and administration as a first step?



3. How about my own knowledge and my own skills? Do I know enough about the various aspects of personnel work, and is my experience broad enough so that I can understand and appreciate the tasks being performed by the many individuals engaged in the total education of the student?

4. How about my relations with my fellow workers, including teachers, administrators, and office personnel? Do we have a philosophy of education that stresses the worth of the individual? Do we feel that we are working toward the attainment of a noble objective, rather than working for forty hours a week for someone else? Does each worker have enough in the way of skill and knowledge so that he can perform his particular task effectively, and are his working conditions such that there is some possibility of the job being well done? Do we have a continual in-service training program so that all of us are kept up to date in our particular area of work?

5. Has our personnel program some impact on all students and all faculty members in our college? Does it mean something to all of us because we all, in some way, contribute to it and all receive something from it?

6. How about the relations of myself and my fellow personnel workers to the students? What is our attitude toward the students? Do we show them respect and confidence? Do we continually strive to bring them into the total educational experience so that in many tasks they are participants and coworkers rather than passive recipients of a college education? Do we strive for a greater realization of their capacities, whether we are reception clerk, therapist, or dean of students? Do we think of these young people not so much as youthful and immature students, but rather as companions in the search for learning and truth so that we help each other as we move along?

7. Do the services that we provide grow out of the needs of the students, or are they imposed by us on the students on the assumption that we know what they need more than they do?

8. Are the services that we provide oriented around the particular needs of the students in our college, rather than being carbon copies of services that have proved to be successful in some other institutions?

9. Do the various directors of the different personnel services feel that they are completely responsible for the services that their department offers? Do they feel that the dean of all services is one who works with them in helping them to achieve their ends, rather than one who supervises their efforts?

10. Do the college teachers feel that they too are personnel workers? Are their aims and objectives the same as those of the director of health services and the dean of students?

11. Do my coworkers think of me as a person they work *with* to achieve a common goal, or do they think of me as a person they work *for*? Do they think of me as the boss, or do they think of me as the person who works with them on common problems?

Research in the past decade has made it increasingly obvious that the task of the administrator is a human-relations task. Those who cannot accept themselves and, therefore, those who work with them will probably have a difficult time in the field of administration. The human-relations aspect of administrative work has been made clear by the work of such men as Roethlisberger at the Western Electric plants, Lewin and Lippett at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Lippett and his colleagues at the University of Michigan, and Carl Rogers and his associates at the University of Chicago.

All college workers, from the janitor to the president, want to feel that they work for something rather than for somebody; that they are a member of a group and belong; that they and their ideas are worth while. The administrator shows in his individual relations with his fellow workers, and in the group relationship at faculty meetings and committee meetings, that he is or is not aware of these principles. A faculty meeting is sometimes a place where one can actually feel the spirit of easy acceptance and respect that members of the group have for each other; it is a situation where the leader coordinates and ties together the ideas of others; it is a meeting where there is easy informality, good humor, and action. The faculty meeting may also be a silent place where the members of the group await the pronouncements of the top man, but pay little or no attention to them; it may be a place where the hostility and resistance is sometimes withheld, sometimes expressed, but always felt; each member may feel that he must watch what he says, for he trusts neither the leader, nor his neighbor, nor himself; there may be little in the way of respect and permissiveness, much in the way of hostility and authoritarianism.

Current research in group dynamics and group leadership tends to question the efficacy of some hitherto standard group procedures, and it brings forth a new concept of leadership in administration. The new leader, instead of trying to inveigle or pressure others into accepting his ideas, will strive to create a situation such that all members of the group will feel free to contribute their ideas and come to some harmonious group decision as to what procedures should be followed or what action should be taken.

Rogers<sup>20</sup> poses these as the questions that the administrator should ask himself:

<sup>20</sup> Rogers, Carl L., "Some Implications of Client-centered Counseling for College Personnel Work," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 8:546-548, Autumn, 1948.

1. Do I trust the capacities of the group, and of the individuals in the group, to meet the problems with which we are faced, or do I basically trust only myself. . . .
2. Do I free the group for creative discussion by being willing to understand, accept, and respect *all* attitudes, or do I find myself subtly trying to manipulate group discussion so that it comes out my way. . . .
3. Do I, as leader, participate by honest expression of my own attitudes but without trying to control the attitudes of others. . . .
4. Do I rely upon basic attitudes for motivation, or do I think surface procedures motivate behavior. . . .
5. Am I willing to be responsible for those aspects of action which the group has delegated to me. . . .
6. Do I trust the individual to do his job. . . .
7. When tensions occur, do I try to make it possible for them to be brought out into the open. . . .

This client-centered point of view is as difficult to put into operation in the group situation as it is in the individual counseling situation, because it depends on attitudes even more than it does on mechanical and verbal skill. The fearful individual with no respect for himself can hardly be an effective client-centered therapist. As an administrator he will have a difficult time in accepting conflicting points of view until he himself has achieved greater security. Many administrators can improve their administrations starting tomorrow or even tonight. They have the required attitudes and the basic security. Their errors are errors of technique and method that can be corrected without too much difficulty. For others, however, this change must be much deeper. The reading of a book can have little effect other than encouraging the individual to take action with regard to the changing of attitudes that may be an integral part of him.

The aims and objectives of the personnel program should be in accord with the aims and objectives of the whole college. The program cannot be completely effective in an institution where the personnel point of view is not generally accepted by all faculty members. In some colleges there may be a sharp cleavage between the teaching staff and other personnel workers, which may result in ineffective service even though the services themselves are excellent. Nor can the teaching staff be forced to accept a point of view. They must come in their own time to adopt it as a part of their basic philosophy.

There is certainly no one best program, and there is no one best administrative structure. Each institution must build its own program and its administrative procedures around the particular needs of its students.

In a large coeducational institution such as New York University, with an enrollment of over 50,000 students, the personnel services are extremely varied in nature and extensive in scope. The Student Health Service, for example, comes under the central university administration, as does stu-



dent employment and general student counseling. On the other hand, some of the special counseling services, such as the Testing and Advisement Center and the Reading Center, are administrative units under the Division of General Education, and each school maintains its own counseling staff. Similarly, a Student Activities Office is directly responsible to the central administration, but the individual schools and centers in most instances supplement their facilities to meet purely local needs. Although the administration has from time to time considered the feasibility of a greater centralization in its student-personnel services, the complex nature of the university has made such centralization less desirable than it would be on a smaller, more homogeneous campus.

On the other hand, in a small women's college such as the Agnes Scott College, Decatur, Ga., with an enrollment of about 700 students, the personnel work is not organized in a formal program. The attendance is limited, so that there is a relatively light teaching schedule and a great deal of individual contact between students and teachers, and teachers and officers. The Dean of Students and the Dean of the Faculty are responsible to the President. In general, problems dealing with personal or social matters are handled through the office of the Dean of the Faculty. The work of juniors and seniors in academic matters is handled very largely by the major professors. Problems that deal with financial matters, as well as problems of many other kinds, come directly to the office of the President.

The three major institutions of higher learning in the Greater Boston area, all bordering the Charles River, present an interesting, a complex, an unusual, and a somewhat confused picture of the organization and administration of student-personnel services.

In the first institution, the oldest, there is no university dean of students. The heads of university personnel services, such as the university hygiene department, are responsible to the provost, who is the dean of the faculty of arts and sciences. The undergraduate college of the university has no academic dean, only a dean of students. While this dean of students has the authority to enforce the health needs of the college, he is subordinate to the provost in any matters concerning the hygiene department. The director of financial aid at the college is also responsible to the provost, rather than to the college dean of students.

In the second institution, as in the first, there is this noticeable lack of the separation of the functions of academic and personnel officers. This general subordination of the personnel officers to the academic officers is quite typical of many of the private Eastern institutions of higher learning. This is a questionable practice, particularly when the academic officers have little understanding of the modern concept of the role of personnel services in the total educational experience of the student. There is also evident at the second institution, as at the first, an attempt to have

the teaching faculty assume the responsibility for the development of the whole student. Thus the function of the dean of students of the second institution is to coordinate the counseling services of the university, and to help the faculty to carry out their tasks. The director of the university medical department has an equal status with the dean of students in matters concerning the health of the students. He is not subordinate to the dean of students and is directly responsible to the president. A freshman advisory council is made up of members of the teaching faculty, and, while the dean of students may influence the decisions of this council, it is the decision of the council which will prevail in case of any conflict.

The third institution has the most unusual organization of all three. All the university personnel services that are connected with the public, for example, admissions, student aid, and placement, are under the direction of the assistant to the president. Other university services, such as the counseling service and the health service, are under the direction of the dean of men; the director of student activities has a most unusual dual responsibility to both the dean of men and the dean of women. At the individual school and college level, all of the chief personnel officers are responsible to the school or college dean. The budgets of all of the personnel services, however, must be cleared through the office of the university dean, who is actually the provost. Thus the real control of the personnel services is in the hands of the provost, rather than the dean of men, the dean of women, or the assistant to the president.

Thus in all three institutions there is evident the subordination of the personnel to the academic, and the attempt to put the responsibility for personnel work back on the shoulders of the teaching faculty. There is no doubt that this responsibility should be shared by the teaching faculty, but it is essential that the university administration that attempts to put this policy into practice has a very clear understanding of just what personnel work entails. It is even more essential that the faculty who are to carry this personal responsibility are not only *personnel-minded*, but *personnel-trained*. A chemistry professor who lives and breathes chemistry may be a splendid person, but it will be tragic if any university administration assumes that all that is needed to make such a person a counselor is an administrative edict indicating that the professor is now responsible for the personal well-being of thirty students.

Whatever else the personnel program may be, it must be realistic. Little will be gained with grandiose plans that cannot possibly be put into operation. There is a financial limit on the services that can be offered in most institutions, and, while services should be based on student need, it is likely that in many institutions not all of these needs can be met. A major problem may be the selection of the most urgent needs.

Another essential aspect of any student-personnel services program is



the continual in-service training for all personnel workers including teachers. Not only will this result in a gain in the way of knowledge and skills, but it may also be the cause of a gradual change of attitudes. There is probably no better way to develop mutual respect and understanding among faculty members than through small in-service group discussions, which may sometimes develop into even more beneficial group-therapy sessions.

A final requisite must be a continual recognition of the fact that personnel services are for the students, and that student representatives should be "in" on any program right from the planning stage. Our pattern of American education has too frequently ignored the students and granted them little in the way of assets. Frequently it has apparently taken for granted that they are irresponsible individuals, who have nothing to offer, and must be watched constantly. It is remarkable that some individuals who grow up in such an atmosphere contribute as much as they do. The college personnel program must be based on the assumption that the students are responsible individuals, who can offer a great deal if the climate is conducive to growth. The major function of the administrator is to create that climate for both students and faculty so that continuing growth may take place.

### CHAPTER 3    *The Selection and Admission of Students to Colleges and Universities*

There may be some question as to whether admissions officers should be classified as personnel workers. There is no doubt that the admissions officer of old could hardly qualify as a personnel worker, and it is equally true that there are many institutions today where admissions officers have no personnel function. There is a very definite trend, however, to extend the personnel services, not only to those students who have graduated from an institution, but also to those young people who plan to attend the institution. If a college feels that it has a responsibility to help young people to plan their futures, even though they may not eventually end up as students at that institution, then it is obvious that all college personnel who are concerned with admissions are key personnel workers. They are the first college personnel met by the would-be student, and they frequently help him to make decisions vital to his future welfare.

The first contact made by university representatives is often long before the student graduates from secondary school. College admissions representatives visit schools and talk with students and parents. More and more these representatives are guidance trained, and many have had guidance experience in secondary schools. Many universities and colleges, for example, Boston University, Michigan State College, and Stephens College, offer professional vocational-guidance services to secondary schools. The admissions representatives who are in this work must be skilled counselors, since so many young high-school students have little idea of what they want to do or what they are capable of doing.

An interview card used by the guidance counselors in Boston University's Office of School and College Relations is shown in Appendix 2. This card is used by the counselors when they talk with students in the high schools. It is in two parts so that the counselor may keep a copy for his file and follow the progress of the student's interest and application.

Admissions services are generally accepted today as one of the student-

personnel services offered by institutions of higher learning. This change is clearly indicated by a study of the history of admissions services. It is interesting, for example, to note the change in the status of the registrar, who is rapidly becoming accepted as a professional personnel officer, rather than a secretary.

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF ADMISSIONS SERVICES

It is reasonable to suppose that the establishment of a college also means the establishment of an admissions policy, and the study of admissions policies in American colleges usually begins with the establishment of Harvard College in Cambridge, Mass., in 1636. Students were originally admitted on the basis of an oral examination, which covered, among other things, the character and background of the student as well as his knowledge of Latin and Greek. The precedent established by Harvard was followed by other institutions, and, since the basic purpose of these early colleges was the training of a select group of young men for the clergy, the admissions procedure was not overly complicated. Nor was it a personnel service, since its basic purpose was screening. However, as college programs broadened to include the training of doctors, lawyers, and teachers, admissions policies began to change. A written recommendation became one of the requisites, and, as the academies developed, English, science, history, and mathematics made their appearance on the list of requirements. Intelligence and knowledge of factual material soon took first place as requirements for college admission; and, although in recent years the total personality of the student has become increasingly emphasized, these two items still remain as the major hurdles for the youth seeking admission to a college.

Strang<sup>1</sup> pictures the later development of admissions policies:

Before 1875, each institution admitted students on the basis of its own entrance examinations. In the year 1871 the policy of admitting students on the basis of transcripts of high school marks began to gain headway. The College Entrance Examination Board rose rapidly in favor after 1900. A few years later a great deal of work was being done on the predictive value of tests of general intelligence. For a time intelligence tests competed with high school marks for first place in value to college admission officers. Because the correlation between college marks and each of these two factors was far from perfect, efforts were made to isolate other influences which had a significant relationship with college achievement. The relationship between ratings and personality tests and scholarship was studied. Evidences of scholastic preparation, intellectual ability, and the amassed cumulative achievement of the candidate have, in general, been

<sup>1</sup> Strang, Ruth, *Personal Development and Guidance in College and Secondary School*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1934, p. 63.

given more attention than data concerning special interests, moral and social promise, health, and financial status.

In the last two decades the methods of selection of students advocated by authorities on the matter of admissions indicate not only an increasing feeling of responsibility toward youth, but a general trend toward a greater cooperation between colleges and secondary schools, and away from the still widely practiced system of basing entrance requirements on a number of earned credits in specific subject-matter fields.

Douglass, reporting in 1931 on the results of a number of studies, stated that: <sup>2</sup>

. . . entrance requirements based on minima of earned credits in specified subject matter fields [are] practically useless in differentiating between good and poor college risks.

Compared on the basis of predictive usefulness to psychological test scores, high school marks, and principals' ratings on college promise, the pattern of high school credits is obviously and definitely inferior. . . .

Ferguson,<sup>3</sup> in 1938, reported on such general trends in the matter of admissions as an increased emphasis upon the general school record, a greater inclination on the part of the college to judge each applicant on his merits, the reduction in the emphasis upon foreign languages as an admission requirement, a marked growth in the use of aptitude tests, increased attention given to personal qualities, and a growing tendency to encourage personal interviews.

In a report on an admissions plan at Hamilton College, Cowley,<sup>4</sup> in 1940, discussed three studies, all of which, he believed, demonstrated that intellectual ability was superior to specifically required units in predicting college success. Admissions officers at the college were more interested in the applicant's mind and in his personal characteristics than in the pattern of high-school courses that he had taken. They determined whether or not they would admit him chiefly in terms of his score on a scholastic-aptitude test, his class rank, and his high-school teachers' appraisal of him.

One suggestion resulting from the follow-up study <sup>5</sup> of the Eight Year Study was that admissions be based on a thorough endorsement from a responsible principal, a full description of the program of study followed

<sup>2</sup> Douglass, H. R., "The Relation of Pattern of High School Credits to Scholastic Success in College," *The North Central Association Quarterly*, 6:296-297, December, 1931.

<sup>3</sup> Ferguson, Harold A., "Trends in College Admission Requirements," *School and Society*, 48:407-411, Sept. 24, 1938.

<sup>4</sup> Cowley, W. H., "A New Admissions Plan," *Journal of Higher Education*, 11:345-352, October, 1940.

<sup>5</sup> Chamberlin, Dean, *et al.*, *Adventure in American Education*, Vol. IV, *Did They Succeed in College*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942, p. 187.



by the student, his score on a test of scholastic aptitude, and his score on some type of English comprehensive examination.

In this same follow-up study<sup>6</sup> it was stated that the answer to the question "Are students with high scholastic aptitude scores more successful in college than undergraduates who have lower ratings?" seemed to be "yes" in most areas. This was particularly true in classifications that demanded intellectual ability, and only slightly less so in the equally important area of personal emotional adjustment. Interest in organized sport and in informal physical activities was shown by more students with lower scholastic-aptitude scores than with high scores.

All the methods indicated by these studies—the use of the principal's rating, the student's grades in high school, his rank in the high-school graduating class, and his scholastic aptitude as determined by standardized tests—all these methods reveal a greater cooperation between the secondary school and the college.

Character and personality rating scales are used by most colleges, with the opportunity for the principal to express himself in his own words concerning the student. Rating scales are often little more than biased impressions, but they do help the principal who finds it difficult to write recommendations. Many secondary schools today rate their seniors on a scale suggested by the National Association of Secondary School Principals. This scale requires the ratings of several teachers, and is used quite generally in college admissions. A copy of this scale is shown in Appendix 3.

A growing trend is to have recommendations written by the guidance officer in the high school, rather than by the principal. This is a movement in the right direction since the guidance officer usually has more intimate and accurate knowledge of the student.

Rank in class is often rather meaningless since it is determined in so many different ways. Some secondary schools estimate rank in the student's last school year, some for the last two, some for three, and some for all four. Some schools will rate the student against the entire school population, others against the division he may be in.

This question may arise: How does the use of scholastic aptitude as a factor in admission indicate a closer cooperation between the college and the secondary school? When admission is based on such a factor as scholastic aptitude, as determined by the use of standardized tests, this can by no means be taken to indicate that the secondary school would no longer be required to offer certain subjects to the student if he were to expect to be admitted to college. But it may be taken as some indication of a realization that the school should not be so tied down that it must indicate that the student has spent a certain number of months amassing

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 192.

a certain number of credits in required subjects. It is reasonable, for example, to say that the college should expect, and demand, a certain minimum knowledge and ability in mathematics before admitting a student. It is ridiculous, on the other hand, to demand that the student have two "credits" in mathematics without regard to his actual mathematical ability and knowledge.

When a student's scholastic aptitude is at great variance with his accomplishment in high school, the admissions officer should discover the reasons. This is not likely to be too difficult if there is a close liaison between the college admissions office and the high-school guidance department.

Russell<sup>7</sup> believes that this trend toward cooperation with secondary schools is highly desirable. He writes:

Traditionally the colleges have assumed the right to select their own entering students. At every other stage in the educational system, however, teachers in the unit the pupil is completing customarily determine whether he is ready for the next rung of the educational ladder.

Chief exception to the rule that the college selects its own students is found in the publicly controlled institutions of higher education, which now in many states admit any graduate of an accredited high school.

Most institutions also have a policy of admitting mature persons, often defined as those over 21 years of age, as special students without regard to the specified entrance requirements.

These policies seem to be based on two ideas: (1) The high school staff that has taught the student for four years knows more about his ability than the college can discover through entrance requirements and tests. (2) Motivation is so important a factor in academic success that every person who really wants to go to college should have the opportunity to try it. These assumptions seem sound provided effective counsel and guidance are provided.

It is true that in our pattern of American public-school education the child who is capable of graduating from one grade is considered acceptable for the next grade. Graduation from high school, however, does not necessarily qualify a student for college entrance. The student who is admitted for professional training should have the capacity to complete the work required for his degree. The public institutions mentioned by Russell may sometimes be placed in the difficult position of being forced to admit students who are able to complete only one year of higher education. Intelligence is still a prime factor in the successful completion of a college course, and while all individuals may benefit from further education, all individuals cannot master the programs that are offered in many colleges today. It may be that sometimes our democratic zeal out-

<sup>7</sup> Russell, John Dale, "Who Should Go to College?" *Journal of the National Education Association*, 37:449, October, 1948.

runs our logic. We cannot truthfully say that all Americans should have a higher education until the content of our higher education undergoes a drastic change. If higher education does require an increasing capacity to master abstract concepts and to produce creative ideas, then higher education is not for all. One of the tasks of the admissions officer is to help some young people to see that they become happier citizens by staying away from a college.

At the same time, however, the guidance counselor who represents the admissions office knows that he has no absolute criteria which he can use to indicate whether or not a student should come to college. The best that he can do is to help the student to gain a true understanding of all his capacities and liabilities, so that he will be able to make a more valid judgment as to whether or not he should go on to college. The admissions officer must strive continually to devise better means of helping the student into the program where he will have the greatest chance of success.

### THE PLACE OF ADMISSIONS SERVICES

If a college education is to be worth the time and money spent on it, it should have a deep and lasting effect on the total development of the individual. Intellectual, physical, economic, and social skills, attitudes, ideals, and appreciations should be developed by the student during his years on the campus. This learning may determine the future course of his life.

Brouwer develops this point as follows:<sup>8</sup>

To each experience the student brings a complex of ideas, habits, feelings, and the like, which are an expression of the unity, and the oneness, of his personality. Inevitably, therefore, any experience directed toward one aspect of the personality will produce concomitant learnings through the reactions the students make to their physical environment, to persons around them, or to the relevance of the experience to their needs. Thus, all experiences on the campus will affect the total development of the student.

To affect total development most effectively, therefore, the college must know the past experience of the individual—at least those aspects of it which are significant for the new experience. The personal resources of the student—his skills, abilities, interests, beliefs, and information—which are to be changed through the educational experience in college will change only when his personal resources upon admission are taken into account. In order to take them into account, the college must know whence they came.

There is no doubt that, if selection and admissions procedures are to be effective learning experiences for each student, then as much thought and

<sup>8</sup> Brouwer, Paul J., *Student Personnel Services in General Education*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1949, pp. 102-103.



planning must go into them as goes into any other aspect of college personnel services. If we do accept this proposition that admissions procedures are educational experiences, then we might be able to expect some correlation between admissions policies and the general excellence of institutions of higher learning. Gardner,<sup>9</sup> in a study on this question, did report a significant correlation between the two factors.

A further indication of the need for an effective admissions service lies in the increasing number of persons desiring higher education. The GI Bill not only provided the necessary financial aid for hundreds of thousands of college students, but it also provided definite proof that without some form of financial aid a large proportion of the youth who would most benefit from a higher education would never be able to experience one. There are also, of course, a large number of college students who would be far better off if they were elsewhere than in college. It is the dual responsibility of the high-school guidance department and the college admissions office to see that those who would most benefit from a college education go to college.

The admissions counselor, because of his familiarity with the secondary schools, is the college personnel worker who is best equipped to make decisions on the matter of college admissions. For this same reason he should be a key figure in any student-aid committee since he will have the most accurate estimate of the possibility of success of those students who are being considered for financial assistance. A copy of a confidential report form used by admissions counselors at Stephens College is shown in Appendix 4.

The Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education<sup>10</sup> reported that of 15,000 white seniors in high school in 1949, 35 per cent were college applicants. An additional 23 per cent of this group indicated an interest in going to college sometime. In other words, over half of the students studied indicated an interest in higher education.

College attendance had grown from less than 250,000 in 1900 to 1,500,000 in 1940. Although by 1949 the veteran enrollment had dropped from over 1,000,000 to 856,000, the total enrollment in institutions of higher learning had risen to almost 2,500,000. By the beginning of the 1950-1951 academic year the total enrollment had dropped to 2,295,000 while the veteran enrollment had decreased to 575,000. International complications will continue to have a marked effect on college enrollments throughout the country, but there will be a continuing and critical need for higher education.

Some of the developments which have made this need acute were

<sup>9</sup> Gardner, Donfred H., *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vol. V, *Student Personnel Services*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936, pp. 32-35.

<sup>10</sup> Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, "New Light on College Admissions," *Education Digest*, 15:27-28, September, 1949.



pointed out by the President's Commission on Higher Education<sup>11</sup> as being: (1) the demands of technological progress in terms of skills and greater maturity; (2) the diversity of our population in occupations, faiths, cultural backgrounds, and interests, and its demand for democratic reconciliation of these differences; (3) the change from a policy of isolationism to one of responsibility in world affairs with its requirement of a knowledge of other peoples; and (4) the atomic age and its requirement of social and economic changes to make ready for industrial use of this type of energy.

More and more colleges and universities are attempting to meet the needs of students by helping them to select a suitable and effective academic program of studies, by guiding them into an extracurricular program suited to their personal interests and needs, by assisting them to make decisions in line with their optimum development, and, in general, by assisting them to envisage their whole life plan. This guidance program cannot be too effective if admissions officers have been concerned only with increasing the student enrollment. It may be equally difficult if the sole criterion for admission is intellectual status such that the student is intellectually in the upper 5 per cent of the population. In order to be able to individualize the educative experience of each student, it is necessary to collect extensive information concerning such factors as academic experiences, purposes, vocational goals, interests, extracurricular experiences, personal characteristics, home background, social experiences, physical development—in fact, the whole continuum of life experience. One of the tasks of student-personnel services is to collect, to organize, and to make use of this information, since the effectiveness of a college curriculum is in a large measure dependent upon the degree of its integration with the past experiences and the needs of the student. It is highly desirable that the data concerning individuals entering an institution, and the understanding derived from the admissions program, reach those with whom the students will do their work in the classroom.

As has already been indicated, guidance counselors from the college admissions office should be in secondary schools, working in conjunction with the high-school guidance office long before the students are ready to graduate. Thus the college guidance counselor may help the student to see things more clearly so that he will not attempt to go to college, but move toward some other occupation. He may also help others, who had never considered going to college, to see that a higher education would be most beneficial for them.

The admissions office usually makes a record of every inquiry by any potential student. Appendix 5 is a copy of a card used at Boston Uni-

<sup>11</sup> Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals*, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947, p. 2.

versity to keep a record of any inquiry or application. The cards are kept up-to-date in an accurate manner, so that no student's application or interest will be overlooked or fail to be properly followed up. The second copy of this card is filed geographically in the office of School and College Relations, so that the guidance counselors may talk with the students in the schools when they call.

When a student drops in to the admissions office at Boston University he fills out an interview card, a copy of which is shown in Appendix 6. This is very similar to the interview card shown in Appendix 2. The student fills out the front side before meeting the Secretary of Admissions; the Secretary of Admissions uses the reverse side for his notes. A rating scale of 1 to 5 is used in the lower left-hand column.

When the student applies for admission he will, almost inevitably, fill out application forms. Copies of two such forms used at Boston University are shown in Appendixes 7 and 8.

The clear admittance of many students will be quite obvious, but many others will be borderline cases who need the attention of a skilled counselor. Wherever there is any question or doubt the student should be given every opportunity to work out the best solution himself. Often, of course, this is impossible, and the job of the counselor may be to help the student to adjust to the fact that he will not be admitted. Frequently the counselor may feel that the scholastically acceptable student should not come to college because of his lack of financial resources, and he will try to help the student to see what will be likely to happen if he does enter college. Another counseling problem arises when a scholastically acceptable student shows neurotic tendencies that make his success in college highly questionable. Thus counseling is standard procedure rather than an exception to the rule in the admissions office, and it is essential that counselors be a part of that office. In some colleges the registrar is the admissions officer. For obvious reasons he should be personnel-minded and personnel-trained.

One of the measures of the effectiveness of the admissions service is the mortality rate, and in higher education generally the mortality rate is such that it can give little satisfaction to admissions officers. In many institutions less than one-half of the students who enter the institution ever complete their college course. Fernandez,<sup>12</sup> in a study of withdrawals from Boston University General College, found that 26.5 per cent of the total freshmen class had withdrawn from the college, despite the presence of an excellent guidance office.

In the study, already mentioned, by Gardner,<sup>13</sup> 131 college adminis-

<sup>12</sup> Fernandez, Joseph, *A Survey of Reasons Given by Freshmen for Withdrawal from Boston University General College—1948–49*, unpublished Master of Education thesis, Boston University, 1950.

<sup>13</sup> Gardner, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

trators and faculty members were asked to give their opinions as to the cause of student failure. Inadequate secondary-school preparation was given as the main reason by forty individuals, thirty-five referred to lack of interest as the main cause, and twenty-six pointed to the lack of ability as the basic reason for failure. College administrators and students quite frequently do not see eye to eye, and it is interesting to compare the above with the answers given in Fernandez's<sup>14</sup> study of reasons given by students for withdrawal. Finances were given as the main reason by approximately 26 per cent of the group, personal reasons by about 18 per cent, and academic reasons by 9 per cent. Almost half of the group had transferred to other schools and colleges in the university or to other institutions. The prevention of dropouts is a personnel job, and no personnel worker has a more important role to play in this task than the admissions officer.

### THE DETERMINATION OF POLICIES OF ADMISSION

Policy-determining agencies for admission to institutions of higher learning are quite varied, although a large proportion of American colleges and universities use similar plans. Power to set up policies may be vested in the registrar, in an all-university faculty committee, in a special committee, in the trustees, in the state board of education, or in the president.

Prator made a study to show the authority for establishing entrance requirements in thirty large and thirty small colleges and universities in the United States, to compare the organizational plans for determining admissions standards in both large and small institutions, and to determine the best practices with reference to this problem. The author concludes:<sup>15</sup>

A proper organizational plan for determining the standards and requirements for admission would be to vest the responsibility for determining the basic requirements in the body which has the best interests of the whole institution in mind. This would normally be the faculty. However, it may be desirable in many institutions to have committees charged with this responsibility. The basic requirements for entrance should be satisfactory to all the colleges of the university. The important consideration is to have some agency which is familiar with the general objectives of the institution determine the admissions requirements. It is also desirable in most institutions to maintain some degree of uniformity in standards throughout the several divisions or departments of the institution.

If a college faculty cannot have some voice in the admissions policies of the institution, it should at least be aware of them. It is highly desirable

<sup>14</sup> Fernandez, *op. cit.*

<sup>15</sup> Prator, Ralph, "Policy-determining Agencies for College Entrance Requirements," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 29:56, Feb. 15, 1951.



that admissions policies be under continual careful scrutiny, and they should be flexible enough so that changes can be made easily and quickly. Some college faculty members know nothing about admissions policies, while others know about them but by their actions apparently do not agree with them. The first group should be given some understanding of the type of student they have in their classes; and it should be made clear to the second group that in fairness to the students they must accept the admissions policies even though they may take steps to try to change them. It is quite unjust to have one university service say that a group of students satisfy university requirements with regard to admissions, and then to have a professor regularly fail one-half of his class because they do not measure up to his standards. Grading can hardly be just if the graders do not operate in accordance with the admissions policy of the institution. The author knows of one professor in a large university who is in the habit of telling his students that in his course the average grade is D. Such a clash in policies should not be allowed to exist, and either the admissions office should change its admissions procedures, or the professor should change his methods of grading. Any such professor is either ignoring admissions policies or is ignorant of them.

Admissions policies should be determined by a committee made up of faculty members and students representing different schools, colleges, and departments. The chief admissions officer should, of course, be a key member of the committee. The student members should be more than mere figureheads, and they should have a definite voice in policy decision. If close cooperation is to be maintained between the secondary school and the college, it is essential that the committee be familiar not only with the objectives of the institution, but with the objectives of the total secondary-school program as well. In fact, it would be well to have secondary-school representatives on the admissions policies committee.

Another difficulty that frequently arises in a large institution is that, while colleges and schools may have different entrance requirements, the student in any one school frequently takes courses in a number of other schools. This places the conscientious professor in a difficult position, since he is grading individuals who have been admitted under different standards. A grade of D in one college may be considered quite respectable, while in another it is the equivalent of a failure.

## THE RECRUITMENT OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

The recruitment of students is as necessary for some colleges as the recruitment of customers is for stores, and it is sometimes conducted with as much finesse and delicacy. Many colleges, particularly in the lean years, cannot afford to be too demanding with their prospective



students, and it is sometimes a case of getting recruits with no questions asked. Recruitment officers whose salary depends on the number of students they recruit may tend to become somewhat careless about the type of student that they are bringing into their respective colleges.

Probably the commonest advertising instrument is the college catalogue, and it is indeed rare to find one which presents a completely accurate picture of the college as it actually exists. It is interesting to note that the purposes, aims, and ideals of different institutions, as stated in the catalogues, do not differ a great deal. They are remarkably similar in that they refer to practically every desirable characteristic that an individual might wish to possess. Junior college catalogues usually indicate that the student may be given training preparatory to entering a senior college, or semiprofessional training if he expects to enter the business or commercial world. The objectives are generally couched in such language that it is doubtful whether they mean much to the prospective student.

Opportunities in colleges are often misrepresented in catalogues. One college catalogue, for example, has several paragraphs that refer to the educational and vocational counseling services available for students. Actually, all the counseling is done by the teachers; there is no assignment of students to a particular adviser; and there are no individuals who are specialists in vocational counseling. Another catalogue states flatly that an employment bureau secures and distributes jobs to students who apply. Actually, no up-to-date contacts are maintained with employers, and the number of jobs available depends on the number of employers who telephone in and ask for students for part-time work.

Another catalogue feature that is most inaccurate is the pictures found in some of these publications. It is natural that the illustrations chosen should be the best, but it is sometimes difficult to realize that one is on the same campus illustrated in the college catalogue. One catalogue refers to the many acres on the campus, but does not mention that there is only one building on the many acres. Another one presents a number of attractive pictures, neglecting to mention that they are all of the same building.

The loyal alumni frequently act as recruitment officers, and are sometimes considered the main means by which students are attracted to the college. This is one reason why so many institutions make so many desperate efforts to maintain the loyalty of their graduates, and continually emphasize that the graduate owes something to his alma mater. The graduates of several institutions are continually bombarded with vast quantities of literature, and the call for assistance in the way of money and students is continuous.

Many college administrators apparently believe that publicity via the

sports page will increase enrollment, and they sometimes go to questionable means to build a winning team. Bargaining with high-school athletes has now become a fairly common practice, and some administrators are not too disturbed by the hypocrisy of their athletic program. Many colleges and universities treat the athlete in the same way that they treat any other student, but many others have two admissions policies, one for athletes and one for other students. It is extremely doubtful that this malpractice increases the enrollment at an institution, and, even if it does, many administrators would feel that the student who comes to a university because it has a good football team might better have stayed at home. An athletic scholarship may be a fine and a good thing, but it may also be little more than a cash inducement to get an athlete to ply his wares at the college that can offer him the most. Such practices as these are highly questionable, and they indicate a lack of a personnel point of view as well as a curiously unethical attitude. The admissions officer must be concerned with the ways and means that are used by his institution, if not by his office, to induce students to attend. If he is truly concerned with the welfare of the student, and puts the welfare of the student above the financial welfare of his institution, then he cannot sit back and allow highly unethical practices to be used in the recruitment of students.

As long as colleges must recruit students in order to exist, there is bound to be some malpractice in the process of recruitment. The greatest hope probably lies in the increasing cooperation between high schools and colleges; and it may be that eventually a negative form of recruitment will be completely replaced by a positive form of guidance with schools and colleges working closely together, aiming at a common objective. Boston University, for example, attempts in many ways to maintain a close working relationship with the secondary schools. It sends out guidance bulletins several times a year to principals and guidance directors, special letters on any new programs, R.O.T.C. information, and the like, and career information in the form of charts and monographs is available to the schools. Discussion leaders are in constant demand for short faculty meetings, student-parent group discussions, and so on, and a regular testing program is available for the students.

## FACTORS AFFECTING ADMISSION TO HIGHER EDUCATION

There is general agreement today that anyone who has the desire to continue with his higher education should be given the opportunity to do so if he has sufficient ability. Many people feel that if we are to keep pace with the rapid advance of science and technology, as well as with political and social changes, there must be more and better education than has heretofore been offered to the average person. Americans agree

that lack of money should not prevent the most capable students from experiencing a higher education.

Bunker underscored the obligation of higher education when he wrote: <sup>16</sup>

A particular obligation seems clear upon the American colleges and universities; they must make available every possible facility for the training and education, both professional and general, of every possible young man and woman who is prepared by previous educational experience to undertake college work at the undergraduate or graduate level.

Johnson expressed a similar viewpoint: <sup>17</sup>

The question then, of who should go to college seems not so pertinent as that of who are *coming* to college and what are we going to do with them. This is a tide that no one can stem. I think that no one should want to stem it.

. . . education's answer to the question of who should go to college should be: Let them come—let all those come who need training beyond the high school years. We shall try to find for each, within the limits of sound educational practice, the answer that will be adequate for his needs . . .

On the basis of the Army General Classification Test given to almost 10 million men entering the armed services through induction centers during the Second World War, the President's Commission <sup>18</sup> estimated that at least 49 per cent of our population had the mental ability to complete fourteen years of schooling with a curriculum of general and vocational studies that should lead either to gainful employment or to further study at a more advanced level, and that at least 32 per cent of our population had the mental ability to complete an advanced liberal or specialized professional education.

The Commission was even bold enough to set a figure for future enrollment in institutions of higher learning. The predictions were made, of course, on the assumption that an era of peace was at hand: <sup>19</sup>

The Commission believes that in 1960 a minimum of 4,600,000 young people should be enrolled in non-profit institutions for education beyond the traditional twelfth grade. Of this total number 2,500,000 should be in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades (junior college level); 1,500,000 in the fifteenth and sixteenth grades (senior college level); and 600,000 in graduate and professional schools beyond the degree.

Harris <sup>20</sup> is not quite so optimistic, but even though he believes that

<sup>16</sup> Bunker, John W. M., "A Challenge to American Educators," *School and Society*, 64:33, July 20, 1946.

<sup>17</sup> Johnson, Robert L., "Should Everyone Go to College?" *Progressive Education*, 23:236, April, 1946.

<sup>18</sup> *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals*, p. 41.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 39.

<sup>20</sup> Harris, Seymour E., *The Market for College Graduates*, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949, p. 12.



there is no market for the number of college-trained citizens as proposed by the Commission, he does say:

A survey of American educational philosophy and educational economics leads to the following judgments: Since our democratic ideal is that higher education be open to as many as possible, no one from this point of view should oppose the democratization proposed by the President's Commission. Since the country can afford the costs of a wide dissemination of higher education, the use of part of our society's advancing gains in increased leisure merits a high priority. In the recent past we have taken too large a part of our increased gain in improved plumbing, in more alcohol, in perpetual motion, and in mass entertainment.

There would seem to be little doubt that this national craving for the marks of a higher education may react negatively upon society as a whole. The large majority of our working population performs relatively simple tasks that require little training, and although all such people would probably benefit by more education, it is questionable whether they will all benefit by today's form of higher education. A liberal-arts degree may or may not make a streetcar conductor a more effective worker and a better citizen. It is the respectable thing today to have a college degree, and a degree and an education are by no means synonymous. Too many college students are after credit hours and degrees rather than an education, and it may be somewhat frustrating to add to four years of a nonfunctional high-school program four years of an equally nonfunctional college program. A statement heard quite frequently in college halls today is "I'll start getting my education after I get my degree, but I need my degree to get started. . . ."

Every added year of education postpones the age of independence and the day when one is a man in his own right. Even today the average college student is dependent upon his parents for some years after he has physiologically and socially achieved the status of a man. The lengthening postponement of marriage and homemaking will have, and is now having, a marked effect on our social structure. Added to this is the likelihood of military service, which will further postpone the time when a young man can embark on his career.

Although most colleges and universities are sincere in stating that the reason for selecting students for admission is to choose those who will gain most by study in their institutions, the size of enrollment often exerts a considerable influence on policies of admission. When enrollment threatens to swamp facilities or when there is a shortage of staff or equipment, requirements for admission become more rigid. On the other hand, when enrollment lags, economic considerations demand that a sufficient number of students be admitted to prevent financial loss. The latter situation



obviously results in a lowering of standards. This lack of students again became a financial headache for many institutions of higher learning five years after the close of the Second World War, and admissions officers once again were scouring the country searching for students. A clouded international situation makes admissions predictions impossible, but one thing that is fairly certain is that the government will play an increasingly important role in determining the size of college classes.

In reviewing the findings of several major studies, including the President's Commission on Higher Education, the New York State Commission on the Need for a State University, the Report of the Connecticut State Inter-racial Commission, and the American Council on Education report of its Committee on Discriminations in College Admission, Reeves <sup>21</sup> found evidence that restricted curriculums and inadequate educational facilities constitute a serious barrier to youth desiring to secure a higher education. He reported that in New York the greatest shortage of facilities was found in both general education and in technical training for youths who could profit from one or two years of further education but did not desire the full four years of college. There was also found to be a lack of facilities for training doctors, dentists, nurses, and public-health officials.

The President's Commission <sup>22</sup> noted the traditional tendency of colleges to select students who possess verbal aptitudes and the ability to grasp abstractions while they neglect students possessing other aptitudes such as social sensitivity and versatility, artistic ability, motor skill and dexterity, and mechanical aptitude and ingenuity.

Very often financial difficulties make it impossible for deserving youth to pursue further education. Economic conditions in the home often preclude higher education for many persons because parents either belittle the value of a college education or discourage adequate preparation knowing that they will be incapable of financing such education.

It has been pointed out <sup>23</sup> that in 1945 nearly three-quarters of all children under eighteen years of age were members of families whose total cash incomes were less than \$3,500 per year, 50 per cent were living in households where the income was \$2,580 a year or less, and 36 per cent were growing up in households where the income was less than \$2,000 a year. These figures become doubly important when it is noted that the largest number of children are born to the lower-income families. While

<sup>21</sup> Reeves, Floyd W., "Barriers to Higher Education," *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 31: 214-224, January, 1950.

<sup>22</sup> *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals*, p. 32.

<sup>23</sup> Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. II, *Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity*, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947, p. 12.

it is true that the national income has risen impressively since 1945, the rise in the purchasing power of the average worker is by no means so impressive.

On this question of economic opportunity, Harris<sup>24</sup> writes:

It has been said that for every good student matriculated, another, equally good, does not enter. For example, among male native whites aged 25 to 64 earning \$5,000 or over, the proportion with four years of college or more was 35.5 per cent; for *all* native whites aged 25 to 64, the proportion was but 5.8, or less than one-sixth. Equality of economic opportunity, on present standards, might raise enrollment in institutions of higher learning to five millions.

Geography may also be a restrictive factor. Very frequently admissions policies restrict admission to students living near the college, or make it difficult for nonlocal students to attend. On the other hand, a common joke among Massachusetts high-school seniors is that the best way to be admitted to Harvard is to take up residence in New Mexico. This situation is rather unusual, however, and the simple fact that a student lives within easy commuting distance of a college or university makes it economically much easier for him to receive a higher education.

Various types of discriminatory practices operate to prevent many deserving youth from obtaining a higher education. Admissions policies in many institutions are determined by such factors as sex, race, religion, color, and national origin.

The President's Commission<sup>25</sup> has the following to say regarding discrimination in higher education:

Discriminatory practices deprive the Nation of a great variety of talent, create and perpetuate serious inequalities, and generate serious tensions. The impact of these social attitudes and behavior patterns adversely affects our entire society-group relationships, the individuals who discriminate, and the individuals who are discriminated against. This spiritual damage is not measurable; indeed it has never been recognized with complete honesty. To the extent that intolerant attitudes against minority groups are given support by our educational institutions, the fabric of our democratic life is endangered.

A qualitative measure of discrimination at the undergraduate level is impossible to obtain. Educational institutions are reluctant to be explicit about their selection criteria as these apply to minority groups. Discriminatory practices are denied, ignored, or rationalized. But it requires no parade of statistics to know that the situation for young people of minority groups today is unsatisfactory, both in their opportunity to enter college and in the happiness of their college life. Enrollment data unmistakably indicate the prevalence of quota systems and policies of exclusion. The nature of minority discrimination varies with respect

<sup>24</sup> Harris, *op. cit.*, p. 71.

<sup>25</sup> *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. II, *Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity*, pp. 25-26.

to different minority groups and in different sections of the country. But discrimination on grounds of an individual's race, creed, color, sex, national origin, or ancestry is undoubtedly a fact in many institutions of higher education.

Admission forms are often attacked because they give information which may be used for discriminatory purposes. The appearance of such items as religious affiliation, birthplace of parents, alumni affiliations, and so on, sometimes causes grave concern in the minds of those who believe that one should not be barred from college because of his religion or color or nationality. This suspicion, however, has sometimes gone on to such length that admissions officers feel that almost any question will bring forth the cry of "discrimination." They anticipate complaints whenever a member of a minority group is refused admission, however valid the reasons. Often the answers to so-called "discrimination" questions are vital to understanding the individual. More consideration might be given to a student who did very poorly on an English examination if it was understood that he came from a home where English was not spoken, or if it was known that he was a Negro who had very poor elementary schooling in some Negro school in the South.

There is no doubt, of course, that information on admissions forms has been used and is being used for viciously discriminatory purposes. There is probably less chance of discrimination when such questions are eliminated, but if a college policy is discriminatory it will not likely be changed by the omission of a few questions from an admissions form. A long-term change of attitude must ultimately be achieved if we are ever to have real tolerance, but the emphasis on such details as admissions blanks may be of some value in that it does put the spotlight on discriminatory practices. Here again is a place where the admissions officer must take a stand. Can he actually be described as a personnel worker if he is satisfied to put into operation admissions practices that are definitely discriminatory? It is rather difficult to see how one could say that an admissions officer was concerned with the welfare of all those students who apply if he refuses admission to a student because of his color or his religion. A counselor would face a major problem in trying to counsel an admissions officer in an admission office of this sort.

Reeves<sup>26</sup> found that in recent years men students have had more difficulty in gaining admission to colleges and universities due to the superior academic record of women, and the desire of colleges to increase the percentage of women when the enrollment was largely composed of veterans. This trend, however, is now being reversed, and there may once again be a dearth of men on the campus.

Although Reeves<sup>27</sup> states that the problem of discrimination in the

<sup>26</sup> Reeves, *op. cit.*

<sup>27</sup> *Ibid.*



admission of Negroes at the undergraduate level is largely regional, the President's Commission<sup>28</sup> found that discrimination against the Negro was virtually as true in other sections of the country as in the South. The Commission pointed out that in higher education, according to the 1940 census data, there were only 1.3 per cent of the Negroes, as compared with 5.4 per cent of the native whites and 2.4 per cent of the foreign-born whites, in college. Furthermore, although Negroes represent about 10 per cent of the total population of the United States, the Negro enrollment in 1947 accounted for only 3.1 per cent of the total college enrollment in the country. Approximately 85 per cent of this group was enrolled in 105 segregated institutions. The lower proportion of Negroes, however, is not entirely due to discrimination at the admissions level. Because of previous poor education (which may have resulted from discrimination), many Negroes find it difficult to meet admission standards.

Religious discrimination is greatest against Jewish applicants. As a matter of fact, Jewish applicants who have the greatest difficulty in gaining admittance to colleges and universities are those in the group of highest acceptability. These are the students who are the most intelligent and are the children of college-educated professional men and women.

On the basis of a study of 15,000 white seniors in high school, the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education states:<sup>29</sup>

... figures suggest possible discriminatory practices on the part of American colleges. Jewish applicants were nearly as successful as Protestants—and more so than Catholics—in gaining admission to *some* college. This is despite the fact that 68 per cent of all Jewish high-school seniors made application, as compared with a national average of 35 per cent, and that they predominately lived in the Northeast where getting into college was hardest for everybody. Their success is to be explained by their high average number of applications, 2.2 per individual. But only 63 per cent were accepted by the college of their first choice, as compared with 71 per cent of Catholic applicants and 82 per cent of the Protestants—their relative position with respect to further choices was little better.

At the legislative level, at least, some attempt has been made to improve this condition. The Fair Employment Practices Act is a move in the right direction, but governments cannot legislate attitudes.

#### CRITERIA FOR SELECTION AND ADMISSION

A survey of criteria commonly used to select and admit students to colleges and universities indicates a wide variety of items. The most fre-

<sup>28</sup> *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. II, *Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity*, pp. 29–31.

<sup>29</sup> Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 27–28.



quently used are application forms, College Entrance Examination Board examinations, achievement test scores, intelligence test scores, transcripts of secondary-school marks and credits, rank in high-school class, ratings by high-school teachers and principals, recommendations by clergy, employers, faculty and alumni, measures of personality, interests, and aptitudes, interviews, a diploma from an approved high school, and a physical examination.

Graves<sup>30</sup> examined seventy-one studies made since 1929 on the reliability of a pattern of subjects as a measure of ability to do college work. From this investigation he concluded:

There is a great deal of evidence to indicate: (1) That success in the university or college is not dependent upon what pupils take in high school, but how well they do in what they take. (2) That success in the university or college can be predicted with considerable success by the use of aptitude tests, personal interviews, records of grade point averages in high school, and participation in school activities. (3) That students from high school with curricula related to their life and problems of today make just as good records as pupils graduating from traditional curricula. (4) That the effect of college entrance requirements upon high school curricula cannot be minimized. This effect influences the subjects taken by the 85 per cent who do not go to college, as well as the 15 per cent who do.

College personnel workers do not measure "success" in college by college grades alone, but in the minds of many of the college faculty the successful college student is the A student. While it is generally true that the A student is the one who is the most successful as well as the happiest, it is also true that there are A students who are unsuccessful in almost everything other than the achieving of high grades. In many colleges, however, the capacity of the student to achieve satisfactory grades during four academic years, or in 120 semester hours of study, is the major, and often the only, measure of his success or failure. Grading, even at its best, is a relatively subjective procedure, and a student with a negative personality will probably find it more difficult to become an A student than will one with a more positive personality.

Buckton and Doppelt<sup>31</sup> discuss tests as a basis for the selection of students in Brooklyn College, New York. They point out that the tests have as their purpose the selection of the best students among the applicants. "Best" in this case means that the students are selected in terms of the objectives and goals of the particular college. The tests are used to describe the student's capacity for guidance, to give clues as to his weak-

<sup>30</sup> Graves, Albert D., "Another Look at College Admissions," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 21:122-125, February, 1946.

<sup>31</sup> Buckton, La Verne, and Jerome E. Doppelt, "The Use of Selection Tests at Brooklyn College," *Occupations*, 28:357-360, March, 1950.

nesses and strengths, and to provide a basis for the selection of courses to strengthen weaknesses and exploit strengths. The authors conclude that the admissions tests place in the hands of the counselors tools that give them a clearer estimate of future subject-matter competence than does a high-school record.

Carrothers<sup>32</sup> proposes the following criteria as a supplement to, or a substitute for, high-school records:

1. Interest in the type of educational experience which the particular college seems to be able to offer
2. Maturity: a certain degree of mental, social, physical maturity
3. Health: this is of great importance to every college student
4. Knowledge in certain important major fields
5. Skills, without which no student can hope for success
6. Competence, of special kinds to be demanded by certain specialized types of colleges or professional schools
7. Ability, chiefly intellectual, which may be definitely indicated by a successful meeting of the first six items, or by additional tests and measurements

These are but a few of the numerous studies that have been made to determine the predictive value of different criteria for success in college, but the major conclusion would appear to be that it is unwise to depend on any one index. The best predictors of academic success in college seem to be a combination of the student's high-school record, his rank in the graduating class, his mental capacity as measured by good intelligence tests, and the impression he has left with teachers as indicated in letters and recommendations. Reading ability is also an important factor, and should be determined in the entrance testing, so that students who have reading deficiencies can be helped.

The ideal predictive instrument will be concerned with the total personality of the individual rather than his intellectual capacity alone. Such an instrument does not yet exist, but every personnel officer should be concerned with research which will attempt to develop instruments so that he will be more capable of helping young people to make a valid decision, rather than a guess, as to their college future. A student should be guided away from college if there is valid evidence to indicate that it will result in heartbreak and frustration and little else. If, on the other hand, there is evidence to indicate that a student will gain much and will be able to contribute more to society if he has experienced a college education, then the admissions officer should do everything he can to see that the student does experience such an education.

<sup>32</sup> Carrothers, George E., "Criteria for Selecting College Students," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, 30:86-87, April, 1946.

## DESCRIPTIONS OF SOME ADMISSIONS POLICIES

During the past decade several events have caused changes in college entrance requirements, and have also raised questions about these requirements. One event has been the admittance to college of a large number of veterans who could not meet the usual requirements because of poor grades in secondary school, inadequate preparation, and even failure to complete secondary school. These veterans have been admitted on the basis of tests and other criteria, and, on the whole, they have done well in their academic work. Another event has been the appearance of various plans for close cooperation between a number of secondary schools and colleges in an attempt to make admissions plans more satisfactory for both levels of education. A few of these plans are noted below.

*The College Entrance Examination Board.* In discussing college entrance requirements Mumma<sup>33</sup> referred to changes among the members of the College Entrance Examination Board. One of these was the increasing number of colleges (twenty-four out of ninety-three) that no longer prescribed a set pattern of secondary-school subjects for entrance. In addition, thirty-eight other institutions were willing to permit exceptions in courses required or recommended. The other colleges and universities prescribe approximately half of the secondary-school program and permit a great deal of freedom in the remainder.

Another change was the decreasing number of units of foreign languages required by members of the board. Thirty per cent of the members require fewer units in foreign languages than they did ten years ago, and 31 per cent will admit students who have studied no foreign languages in high school, but whose records would otherwise make them eligible for admission.

*The Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association.*<sup>34</sup> This was a plan of cooperation between a number of secondary schools and colleges. The participating colleges waived their usual subject and unit requirements, and many even went so far as to waive College Entrance Board and other examinations. The cooperating schools, on the other hand, were free to experiment with their curricula. Their one obligation was to supply sufficient evidence of the student's readiness for college work. The 1,475 students from the thirty experimental schools had a somewhat greater degree of college success than did the control group of 1,475 students who had taken the traditional college preparatory courses

<sup>33</sup> Mumma, Richard A., "Further Modifications in College Entrance Requirements," *The School Review*, 58:24-28, January, 1950.

<sup>34</sup> Aikin, Wilford M., *Adventure in American Education*, Vol. I, *The Story of the Eight Year Study*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942.



in secondary schools, whether success is judged by college standards, by the students' contemporaries, or by the individual students.

*High-school-college cooperation in Ohio.* Morton<sup>35</sup> reported in 1947 that a plan of close cooperation has been in operation between forty-five colleges and the secondary schools in the state of Ohio for over ten years. A committee made up of members of the Ohio College Association and the Ohio High School Principals Association is concerned with improving relations between the colleges and the secondary schools. To do this, the committee regularly publishes a compendium of information about Ohio colleges which is intended as an aid to high-school principals and guidance officers. The committee also publishes a booklet addressed to high-school pupils. This booklet is distributed to all first-grade high schools in the state, and it helps the student in his planning about his college future. In addition to these services, the committee collects information concerning specific questions from the forty-five member colleges on such subjects as admissions and housing and makes it available to all high schools.

*The Michigan college agreement.* Faunce<sup>36</sup> has described a plan of cooperation between fifty-five schools and the colleges and universities of Michigan. This original agreement, made in 1938, stated that participating institutions were to admit graduates without reference to patterns of subjects studied during the decade 1940-1950.

In 1945 a joint committee composed of members of the Michigan College Association and the Michigan Secondary School Association proposed the following basis for admission:<sup>37</sup>

The college agrees to disregard the pattern of subjects pursued in considering for admission the graduates of selected accredited high schools provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class. This agreement does not imply that students must be admitted to certain college courses or curricula for which they cannot give evidence of adequate preparation.

. . . Secondary schools are urged to make available such basic courses as provide a necessary preparation for entering technical, industrial, or professional curricula. It is recommended further that colleges provide accelerated programs of preparation for specialized college curricula for those students who are unable to secure such preparatory training in high schools.

The plan described above was adopted and put into effect in 1946, and the number of participating schools continued to grow. Over ninety-

<sup>35</sup> Morton, R. L., "High-school-College Relations in Ohio," *School and Society*, 66:365-366, Nov. 8, 1947.

<sup>36</sup> Faunce, Roland C., "A Functional Program for Michigan Youth," *Educational Leadership*, 61:381-384, March, 1949.

<sup>37</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 382.



two secondary schools are now on the program. Some of the results of the program included the development and launching of new courses, guidance programs, counseling programs, and follow-up studies; the beginning of regional curriculum studies; joint meetings of college and secondary-school committees cooperating on common problems; and the publication and circulation of reports of research studies conducted on campuses of colleges and universities, and in the schools.

*The Illinois secondary-school curriculum program.* Hartung<sup>38</sup> has reported on the recommendations of the Illinois Committee on College Admissions that were turned over to the institutions of higher education for their study and consideration:

The committee recommends that the colleges adopt admission policies which do not specify the kinds of courses the students are to take in high school, but specify the kinds of competence to be required of entering students. There has been extensive research on the kinds of competence which are good predictors of college success. The following five criteria can be used by a college or university to provide the best prediction of the probable success of the student in college work:

1. Score on a scholastic aptitude test, such as the American Council Psychological Examination
2. Score on a test of critical reading, such as the Illinois High School Reading Test
3. Score on a test of writing skill, such as the General Educational Development Test of Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression
4. Score on a simple mathematical test, such as the Quantitative Section of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination
5. Evidence that the student has an intellectual interest and some effective study habits, as shown by his having taken at least two years of work in one field in high school in which his grades were better than average

As the number of years of schooling of the average American youth steadily increases, and as the college degree comes more and more to replace the high-school certificate as the badge of respectability, the gap between high school and college will become less and less tolerable. In some states the public high school is even now reaching up to take in the first two years of college, and college education is being adjusted to meet the needs of youth. College and high school are both engaged in the same task, and if they worked together in harmony to satisfy the needs of youth then the transition from high school to college would be a relatively simple matter. When that day comes many of the problems of the college admissions officer will disappear.

One thing is certain—the nation cannot afford to let tens of thousands

<sup>38</sup> Hartung, Maurice L., "On College Entrance Requirements," *The School Review*, 57:524, December, 1949.

of its best and its brightest young people, who would most benefit from a college education, go without one. Nor can it afford to let tens of thousands of others drop out of college long before they finish their higher education. For the sake of the youth of the country, colleges and universities and the public schools must work together to see that these young people get the education that they need. This is one of the prime responsibilities of the admissions officer.

## CHAPTER 4 *Student Orientation*

Orientation is generally considered necessary whenever an individual finds himself in an unfamiliar situation, and college provides, for many freshmen, an unfamiliar situation that leaves them confused and frustrated. It would seem reasonable that the college, having admitted the student and accepted his money, should assume some responsibility for orienting the student to his new surroundings, but this responsibility is not always accepted.

Orientation has probably been carried on in colleges in an organized fashion for centuries, but the extent to which the student was oriented usually depended on the type of faculty members with whom he had contact. Organized orientation programs are relatively new to college campuses, and although Brown University inaugurated an orientation course in 1888, it is only within the last few decades that there has been a serious attempt to tackle the problem of student orientation to college life. In 1932 Reeves<sup>1</sup> expressed the present-day attitude when he stated that institutions having no provision for freshman orientation should give serious consideration to the advisability of organizing some means of orienting their freshmen. Gardner<sup>2</sup> reported in 1936 that eighty-six out of ninety-six institutions studied had some form of orientation program. In 1948 Bookman<sup>3</sup> made a study of 188 institutions with a normal enrollment of 1,000 to 3,000 students. Of these institutions 143 indicated that some of the techniques of orientation were in use, while 45 stated that no orientation had ever been done or, if it had been done in the past, it was now discontinued.

Any picture that is presented by questionnaire studies can usually be considered as being optimistic, since there is a wide gap between what

<sup>1</sup> Reeves, Floyd W., *et al.*, *The Liberal Arts College*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932, p. 363.

<sup>2</sup> Gardner, Donfred H., *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vol. V, *Student Personnel Services*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936, p. 38.

<sup>3</sup> Bookman, Gladys, "Freshmen Orientation Techniques in Colleges and Universities," *Occupations*, 27:163-166, December, 1948.

administrators think they offer in the way of personnel services and what students feel that they receive. When an institution reports nothing in the way of orientation services, it is likely that the student body will feel that they receive very little in the way of any sort of service.

## THE ORIENTATION SERVICES

Orientation programs in colleges throughout the country include a multiplicity of services. No one orientation program can be described as the "best," and any institution whose program is merely a copy of a program that has worked effectively in another institution will probably find that much revision is necessary. In some institutions there is constant revision and experimentation. In others the same program is followed year after year until it comes to have little meaning other than being a tradition. Some colleges have a program that exists in name only, while in others the program does not even exist on paper.

There is no other personnel service, with the exception of student activities, that can be so effectively organized and administered by students as the orientation program. An orientation committee should be made up of responsible students together with the chief personnel officer and other faculty members directly concerned with orientation. The student representatives should be elected by the students, and they will probably outnumber the faculty members. Sophomores should be well represented on the committee, since they have the most recent impressions of their orientation experiences. An anonymous evaluation by the freshmen of the orientation program will help the orientation committee to detect its strengths and weaknesses and to build for the next year a program that will be more effective in meeting student needs. An example of a form used to evaluate the camp phase of the Boston University School of Education orientation program is shown in Appendix 9.

There are at least three distinct parts to the total orientation program:

1. *Precollege orientation.* Many colleges are located near the schools that supply the great majority of their students, and it is possible for the college to begin orientation with prospective students before they finish high school. The success of this task depends to a great extent on the degree of cooperation between the high schools and the college, and on the effectiveness of the college admissions office. The college that remains aloof from the community will likely have a difficult time with any sort of precollege orientation.

"College days" or "career days" are frequently used to orient the high-school students to some of the offerings in some of the local colleges and universities. These are usually brief, they give the student a picture of a narrow aspect of college life, and they may sometimes give him a some-



what biased viewpoint. Nevertheless, they acquaint the students with some university personnel and give them some ideas about the aims, objectives, and requirements of the institution. Too frequently, however, the college speakers try to sell their institution and their profession, instead of giving an objective picture and acting as a source of information.

The chief difficulty with the one-day type of career day was that students were usually restricted to hearing from only one or two speakers. For one day the high-school campus would be flooded with college personnel; for the rest of the year there would be no one. Most schools now have a series of discussions scheduled throughout the whole year, so that the students have a chance to listen to numerous speakers and thereby get some information on a variety of occupations and institutions.

In Watertown, Mass., for example, the guidance department of the high school sponsors a series of career conferences open to all students. In 1950-1951 there were twenty-one conferences, seven of them dealing with occupations requiring college training.

Some colleges invite high-school students to their campuses. This gives the prospective student a chance to see the college in operation, and he gets a sampling of life on the campus.

Students, usually sophomores, may appoint themselves as big sisters or big brothers of high-school seniors who have indicated their desire to attend the college. By means of letters and visits these students may aid in the orientation of the future freshman before he arrives at the campus. This is beneficial only for those high-school seniors who have already registered at an institution, but it may help to keep in college some students who would drop out even before they arrive on the campus. This idea probably works most effectively in the "big-city" sort of institution, where many of the college students will live a few blocks from several high-school seniors who plan to attend the college the next year. The sophomores are well aware of the difficulties they met the preceding year and will probably appreciate more fully the problems that lie ahead for the incoming freshmen. The incoming students, on the other hand, will often feel free to express their problems to people who are very much like themselves. In the presence of some faculty members they may retain a polite silence and express none of their true feelings.

Literature and movies are sometimes used to disseminate information about the college and its activities. A great deal of this literature, however, presents a highly one-sided picture, and it may even disorient the student in his new surroundings. Any material that gives the future student an incorrect opinion about the college he is planning to attend will obviously aid little in his adjustment to that college.

Boston University sends out four *Newsletters* during the summer months to the incoming freshmen. One of these is completely prepared by the

Scarlet Key, the student honorary activities society. It is the student point of view of the university, prepared by students for students. A copy of this *Newsletter* is shown in Appendix 10.

An active alumni association may sometimes be used to orient future students to college life. The major difficulty here, however, is that the alumni association is usually more interested in drumming up trade for the institution than in helping the youth in his planning. Alumni frequently present an inaccurate and sentimentally colored picture of the college of their youth.

2. *Orientation week.* Orientation week, or freshman week, is an increasingly common practice, although the length of the orientation "week" may vary from one to seven days. Wellesley College is given credit for having the first program of this type (in 1916), but the Freshmen Week activities of the University of Maine were, in 1923, the first to receive national attention.

Orientation is a "must" for every college, and it should utilize the services of the entire faculty and of some of the student body. It should not be either student-dominated or faculty-dominated, but both faculty and students should work together to assist the incoming students as much as possible. In many orientation programs the sophomores who made contact with the incoming students prior to their coming to the campus are the students who will welcome them and introduce them to college life. Even if there is no form of precollege orientation, the college student council should play a dominant role in the freshman week. An incoming freshman gets a "good" feeling when he sees that students who are very much like himself have a good deal to do with the program he is experiencing. He may frequently go to a fellow student with a difficulty when he would not go to a faculty member. It is also true, however, that the students who are active in the program should be mature individuals who are able to carry some degree of responsibility. The reactions of freshmen to student counselors are not always favorable, and some freshmen will feel that the student assistants are in the way rather than helpful. Nevertheless, any orientation program that ignores the valuable aid that can be given by mature students cannot be completely effective.

There is always the danger that the confused freshman may be oriented to death. He can receive so much attention so much of the time that he will feel that he is being smothered. One of the complaints of some freshmen is that they never had enough time during orientation week to do some of the things they wanted to do. They were too busy following the program, hustling from here to there, doing the things that they were told to do. During the orientation week there should be plenty of free time for the freshman, so that he can regain his breath and take stock. It is a good idea to have some optional activities. They provide an oppor-

tunity for freshmen who would like to be in on something all the time and for those who feel the need of more attention. On the other hand, the more mature student will have the choice of taking in some activities, if he wants to, or of letting them go, if he feels that they would be of no particular benefit to him.

If the program during orientation week is to accomplish its purpose of helping the student to feel that he belongs, that he is part of an institution interested in him as an individual, then there must be some opportunity for him to get together with his fellow freshmen, with other students, and with faculty members in small groups. This is particularly important in large institutions, where he may wander around with the feeling of being No. 23,183 rather than John Smith. Small group discussions and informal sessions where the freshmen can at least get in a few words will help to alleviate this feeling.

Large urban institutions often find it extremely difficult to develop a "group feeling" in the freshmen during the orientation week. Several of the schools and colleges of Boston University have attempted to overcome this difficulty by having the freshman class spend a few days at the university's camp near Peterboro, N.H. Faculty and students live and play together in an informal and friendly setting for a few days, and the evidence to date indicates that this experience has had a remarkably positive effect on freshman morale.

There are numerous services that usually go to make up the orientation week. The services referred to below are not common to all institutions, but they are the ones which are most often used during the orientation period.

*a. REGISTRATION.* Registration is frowned upon as part of the orientation services by many personnel administrators. However, it is probably the most confusing experience that the freshman meets, and it is seldom a happy introduction to college life. When registration is a part of the orientation week, it is possible to prepare the freshmen for registration and to alleviate the confusion at least to some degree. Prior to registration there can be a discussion and explanation of the registration procedure, and during registration students, particularly the sophomores, can lend invaluable help by acting as guides and information centers. There are few students who do not remember at least their first registration as a frustrating experience. If it is part of the total orientation week it may be less nerve-wracking.

*b. TESTING.* Testing has long been a part of the orientation week, and it is the service which is most frequently found during the orientation period. There are those personnel workers, however, who feel that tests should not be administered during the stress and strain of the opening week. In some colleges tests are given before the orientation period,



while in other colleges the tests are administered some time during the first semester after the freshman has had a chance to settle down. There is no doubt that the opening weeks are periods of unusual stress, but the longer the testing is delayed, the longer it is until counselors can have information that may be essential if the student is to be helped in overcoming some of his difficulties. For some other students there may be a delay in the taking of remedial action that would prevent further maladjustment.

It should be emphasized to the student that the testing program after he has been admitted to the institution is not for the same purposes as the testing program before admission. The sole purpose of the orientation test battery is to help the student to understand himself and to work out his problems more effectively. It may to some extent determine the course of study that he will pursue, or it may indicate deficiencies where remedial action should be taken. It should have nothing whatever to do with the question of who should be admitted to college and who should be detached from college.

The type of institution will determine to a great extent the type of orientation testing program. A general college or a liberal-arts college, where students have as yet made no particular vocational choice, will probably emphasize vocational testing. On the other hand a professional school, such as a school of education, will be less concerned with tests indicating vocational interests and aptitudes, since the students have already made their vocational choice. It is true, of course, that many may have made their vocational choice on very superficial evidence, and the testing program should make some attempt to determine if they have chosen the right vocation.

In most institutions the tests that are used during orientation week are concerned with such factors as general ability, aptitudes, interests, and personality traits. Bookman,<sup>4</sup> referring to the kinds of tests most frequently administered to freshmen, mentions that every institution used an intelligence test. The one most frequently used was the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. An English test was also administered by every school. Those used most often were the Cooperative English Test, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, and the Nelson-Denny Reading Test. Personality tests are being used with increasing frequency as institutions become more imbued with the personnel point of view and as the instruments for measuring personality traits become more varied and more valid. At Boston University School of Education, for example, a recent guidance test battery included the Heston Personality Inventory, the Gordon Personal Profile, the Cornell Index, a sentence-completion test, and the C-L Humor Test.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 164.



It is important that the tests administered are scored and made available for the students as quickly as possible. If the philosophy of the testing program during the orientation week is student-centered and is not diagnostic and critical, then there will be no point in administering tests if the students are not going to be made aware of the test results. There is little chance of any personal growth resulting from the administration of the tests, but there is some chance of personal growth occurring as a result of the interpretation of the tests. Many of the freshmen who voluntarily come to the counselor's office for test interpretation will be in need of counseling, but, of course, many who do not come will have an equal need for counseling.

Counselors do not agree unanimously about the place of tests and inventories in counseling, but there is close to unanimous skepticism about the value of administering inventories to hostile and indifferent students and trying to give "counsel" to those students who insist that they do not have a problem. A recent study at Boston University School of Education was an attempt to investigate any differences between those freshmen who were interested enough in the results of a battery of tests and inventories to come voluntarily to the Personnel Office for test interpretation and those who showed no interest in the test results.

A battery of tests was administered to the freshman class during orientation week. It was indicated at that time that the Personnel Office would be happy to interpret the test results to the students as soon as the scores were available. When the scores were available this invitation was posted on the bulletin board and the students were invited to drop into the Personnel Office if they were interested in the test results. The same notice was read to all the freshmen in one of their classes. The students who responded to this invitation were referred to as the "volunteers."

Several weeks after the volunteer river had dried up, another notice was read to the freshman class by their instructor. This notice stated that a number of freshmen had not yet made appointments for test interpretation and that it was expected that all freshmen who had not yet appeared would make appointments immediately. The students who responded to this double-edged invitation were considered to be "semivolunteers."

Several weeks after the semivolunteers had appeared, steps were taken to herd in the "nonvolunteers." The names of the missing students were listed, appointment times indicated, and instructors were asked to get each student to put his name down at a time suitable to him. This procedure was repeated three times before all stragglers had made appointments. The students who responded unhappily to this directive call were known as nonvolunteers.

Out of a total of 168 freshmen, 105 were volunteers, 16 were semi-

volunteers, and 34 were nonvolunteers. Thirteen students dropped out before the study was finished.

Information about the volunteers and nonvolunteers was compiled from the battery of tests administered during orientation week and from an interview form that was filled out by the counselors at the close of each test-interpretation session.

From the interview form and the comments of the counselors the following general differences were noted:

1. The freshmen enrolled in the School of Education were fairly evenly divided into secondary-school majors, physical-education majors, and elementary-school majors. Of the secondary-school group 88.9 per cent were volunteers, while 2.2 per cent were nonvolunteers. Of the elementary-school group 71.4 per cent were volunteers, while 26.2 per cent were nonvolunteers. Of the physical-education group 51.5 per cent were volunteers, while 32.3 per cent were nonvolunteers.

2. The mean time taken for a test interpretation session with the volunteers was 21.3 minutes, while with the nonvolunteers it was 16.3 minutes.

3. The grade point score of the volunteers at the end of the first semester was 2.71, compared with 2.38 for the nonvolunteers.

4. Four of the volunteers missed their first appointment, whereas six of the nonvolunteers missed their first appointment, four missed their second appointment, and five missed their third appointment.

5. Ten of the volunteers indicated a desire to return for further discussion of the test results or for counseling. None of the nonvolunteers indicated any desire to return.

6. The volunteers tended to exhibit a good deal of questioning curiosity compared to the general apathy of the nonvolunteers. The general non-volunteer attitude might best be described as "I don't give a damn."

7. The reasons given by the nonvolunteers for not making an appointment were varied. A few are indicated below:

"I tried, but there was no time."

"I had to play ball."

"I forgot about it."

"No reason—I just put it off."

"Oh, I guess I didn't think much about it."

"I never got round to it."

"I came down, but the office was closed."

"Why should I, if I have to come down here to find out about myself? I might just as well go to a psychiatrist."

"I was told it was up to me. Now I am compelled to come down here."

"Oh! Lazy, I guess."

"Well, you might think I am queer, but I never like to know the results of tests."

Significant differences were noted in the scores on four tests that were a part of the battery administered during the orientation week. The Cooperative English Test showed a significant difference in vocabulary, speed of reading, and the level of comprehension, in favor of the volunteer group. The Kuder Preference Record indicated that the major interest differences were in the computational and the literary areas, with the volunteers showing a greater interest in the literary area but less interest in the computational area. The Bell Adjustment Inventory indicated the major adjustment differences to be in the home and social areas, with the volunteers showing a more positive score in the social area but a less positive score in the home area. The Heston Personal Adjustment Inventory showed the major differences to be in the areas of analytical thinking, sociability, and home satisfaction. The volunteer group showed a more positive score in the areas of analytical thinking and sociability but a less positive score in the area of home satisfaction. The latter two items were in agreement with the Bell.

The general picture, then, showed the volunteers to be more interested and curious about test results and to be more conscientious about appointments than the nonvolunteers. They were superior in vocabulary, speed of reading, and level of reading comprehension. They were more interested in the literary area but less interested in the computational area. They showed a greater capacity in the area of analytical thinking. They indicated a better adjustment in the social and sociability areas but less adjustment in the home area. The results of this study would appear to indicate that many freshmen who will not come to the counselor's office for test interpretation are in need of counseling.

In some instances test results may indicate that a student, for his own welfare, and also for the welfare of the institution, must have immediate treatment. There are some cases where it is quite evident that action must be taken immediately. There are more cases, however, where this question cannot be answered so easily. Should the student whose test results indicate the possibility of severe maladjustment be brought in for counseling, or should the door be left open so that he knows that counseling is available at any time, but that the responsibility for making the contact is his? There is no quick or easy answer to this question.

C. MEETING FACULTY MEMBERS AND ADVISERS. Orientation week should be a period when the freshman gets a chance to have personal contact with faculty members and, particularly, with the individual who is to function as his faculty adviser. Most institutions have a form of faculty adviser system, but in some colleges the faculty adviser signs his name on a registration card and does little else. A faculty adviser should be personally acquainted with his advisees, and orientation week is the logical time for the original meeting.



A system of faculty interviews where a few faculty members and a few students get together for an easy informal chat has been found to be an effective personnel instrument.<sup>5</sup> The first of these interviews can take place during orientation week, and it helps to give the freshman, right at the beginning of his college career, a feeling of belonging. It also gives a few faculty members a chance to get better acquainted with at least some of their students. The key personnel man in the college life of the student will probably be his teacher, and orientation week is not only a good time for freshmen to meet with some faculty members, but it is a good time for some faculty members to become more aware of certain students. An easy and informal type of get-together between a few faculty members and a few students is an excellent means of breaking the ice. It does much to establish the all-important rapport between the new students and the faculty.

Although the basic purpose of the interview is to welcome the student, to make him feel at home, and to attempt to solve any of his immediate problems, it is also wise to provide some form of information sheet or check list for faculty committees to forward to the personnel office. This may prove to be a valuable addition to the counselor's records, although it should, of course, be viewed as nothing more than the subjective impression of a few faculty members about a student. Nevertheless, impressions are important, and experience tends to indicate that those students who are checked by committees as in need of remedial attention really need remedial action. On the other hand, many students who have more serious psychological difficulties are frequently overlooked in interviews of this nature. At Boston University School of Education the freshman interview form is little more than a blank sheet on which the faculty committee may quote anything that they feel should be brought to the attention of the student personnel director. The sophomore interview form is a check list with items on participation, poise, general appearance, and speech. The junior interview form is a check list with items on professional attitude, leadership qualities, insight into current educational problems, and speech. Copies of these interview forms, together with the faculty instruction sheet that is used in interviewing new students, are shown in Appendix 11, Appendix 12, and Appendix 13. The reasons for the interviews are also explained to the students.

d. MEETING STUDENT LEADERS. The capacity to shoulder responsibility is one of the goals of education, and it is well that as soon as students enter an institution they become aware that their fellow students carry some responsibility. This assumes, of course, that the college believes that it should assist the students in the continual development of self-reliance.

<sup>5</sup> Arbuckle, Dugald S., "The Faculty Interview," *Journal of Higher Education*, 23: 212-215, April, 1952.



Freshmen can become acquainted with some of the student leaders in the college at large meetings and at smaller get-togethers. At such meetings the freshmen can also receive information with regard to the various student activities in which they can participate. Such activities are student activities, and it would seem reasonable that other students should acquaint the freshmen with these activities. Some freshmen have a tendency to try to "get into everything," while others will hang back and participate not at all. The more mature students will be able to give them assistance in the matter of what to choose and how much to choose.

An idea that has proved effective is to have the first student council meeting scheduled as part of the orientation week. This gives the incoming freshmen an early chance to see their student government and faculty working cooperatively together.

e. **SOCIAL EVENTS.** Social events, such as teas, picnics, hikes, tours, and dances, are almost inevitably a part of the orientation week. There is no doubt that they have a place, but care must be taken that they do not make the freshman feel even more left out of things. Many freshmen who attend an orientation dance do not attend any more dances simply because they spent the whole night standing around watching other people have a good time. Social events should be carefully organized so that each freshman, particularly those who tend to be somewhat withdrawn, will receive some individual attention. This, of course, can be overdone. No freshman wants to be dragged onto a dance floor by a vigorous hostess who insists that he must dance and that he must have a good time.

f. **FACULTY LECTURES AND TALKS.** Some time is usually given to talks by different faculty members. In the confusion of freshman week there would seem to be little point in trying to introduce all the faculty of a college to a new student. They will be completely forgotten the moment after they are introduced. It would seem more reasonable to have a student leader introduce to the freshman group those faculty members who will be working with the freshmen in the next few days. The registrar would be one such person. He can at least allay some of the fears of the group and give them a few tips about the intricacies of registration. The chief personnel officer, as the faculty member most responsible for the orientation program, should also be introduced to the group. The freshmen should know that his office is the first place to go if they get into any difficulties. The faculty member who is concerned with student activities might also say a few words, since participation in such activities will certainly be in the minds of many of the students in their first few days in college. The students are probably curious to see the man who heads the institution; therefore the dean or the president would also be a logical speaker. A good rule of thumb with regard to faculty speakers might be that they be kept to a minimum number, and that talks be limited to a

few minutes dealing only with the issues that the freshmen will confront in the next few days.

g. **THE GIVING OUT OF INFORMATION AND OTHER MATERIALS.** Orientation week is a period when the freshman in some institutions is deluged with booklets and pamphlets that leave him more confused than ever. In other institutions he receives nothing in the way of printed material. One requisite would appear to be some form of student handbook which would contain pertinent information. Some of the material to be found in a handbook, such as the names of student officers, is valid for only one year, whereas the major part of the handbook contains material that could be used over and over again. Putting out a good handbook is an expensive business, and some colleges reduce expenses by using the same handbook for several years but having the changeable material on removable sheets. These are taken out at the end of the first year, and the new information is given to the student in the form of mimeographed sheets. This is not so good as a new handbook, but it is much better than giving the student an old book that contains information no longer valid.

Here too there is always the danger that the student will receive a mass of material that means little to him. It would probably be safe to say that the freshman will read very little of the printed material given to him. Everything given to him during orientation week should be concise and pertinent to the immediate situation. Otherwise there is a good chance that it will end up in a wastepaper basket without ever having been read.

h. **FREE TIME.** Free time, during which the student can be on his own, is important enough to be noted as an item. Free time should not be merely that time when the orientation planners run out of ways and means of keeping the freshmen busy. It should be carefully interspersed between the various activities, so that there is a good balance between having nothing to do and having too much to do.

3. *Orientation courses.*<sup>6</sup> No orientation program is complete if it lasts for only a few days and then is forgotten. The orientation services that the freshman experiences in his first few days on the campus should be only the beginning of an orientation program that will carry on throughout his college career. One of the most effective means of bridging the gap between the specific orientation services of the first week and the broader personnel services of the university is an orientation course that will run through the first year. Bookman,<sup>7</sup> in the study already mentioned, found that, in 143 colleges, 61 required an orientation course, and 12 gave a series of required lectures; 49 colleges gave courses carrying credit from one to three hours, while 22 colleges gave no credit for the course; 12 colleges offered a substitute course, which was not required; 61 colleges used an

<sup>6</sup> See Arbuckle, Dugald S., "A College Experiment in Orientation," *Occupations*, 28:112-117, November, 1949.

<sup>7</sup> Bookman, *op. cit.*, p. 165.

"adjustment to college" type of course, and 12 used an "adjustment to the social and intellectual world of today" type of course.

The value of the adjustment-to-college type of course may be questioned, in that it is based on the assumption that whatever difficulties the freshmen may have can be remedied by the intellectual process of the presentation of information. Thus the pattern is sometimes a lecture-dominated type of course where such problems as how to study, how to use the library, how to adjust to college life, and how to prepare for a vocation are discussed. For many freshmen these talks are quite impersonal and have no particular meaning. A discussion of how to use a library, for example, becomes much more meaningful when the students are taking a course in English, where it is necessary to use the library, than when it is merely presented as one of the topics in a course. Another difficulty with such a survey type of course is that it is frequently taught by a number of different faculty members and lacks any sort of continuity. While it may be of some benefit to the freshmen to get acquainted with different faculty members, the ensuing confusion probably offsets any benefits that might accrue. It is better to have the freshmen become acquainted with the ideas of different faculty members by taking their courses.

Many orientation courses are faculty planned and faculty dominated, on the assumption that the faculty knows better than the student what a student's problems may be, and in what direction student orientation should proceed. The validity of this assumption may be questioned. All problems are personal problems, and they cannot be fitted into convenient niches labeled educational, emotional, legal, marital, and so on. It may be of value to some individuals to be given a voluminous mass of intellectual data, but students with emotional conflict will find little value in such information, facts, and figures.

A student committee can lend invaluable assistance in keeping an orientation course up-to-date and keeping the instructor on his toes. An idea that has proved to be effective is to have a committee of students "feed" a continuous flow of pertinent information and questions that need answering to the orientation course leader. The leader is thus aware of the important issues of the time and the orientation is geared to help students to adjust to immediate issues.

If an individual is not adjusted personally, if his emotional stability is such that he cannot withstand shocks and pressures without being overcome, then it would appear to be pointless to try to adjust him specifically to college life, to married life, or to any other "way" of life. This attempt at adjustment is especially fruitless if the approach is completely intellectual and academic, with no understanding of the emotionalized background of all problems.

The orientation aspect of a core program offered to all freshmen at the Boston University School of Education is described as the section in per-

sonal adjustment. Its purpose is to help students become capable of solving their own problems, problems which are often directly related to their change to a college environment. All freshmen meet for one and a half hours a week in groups of about thirty students. Part of the time may be taken up by a general discussion, and then the groups split up into two smaller groups for continued discussion, which may be more therapeutic in nature. The leader attempts to discuss issues which might have personal implications for the students. Every attempt is made to help the student to feel that this is his hour and that he can talk about anything he wants. Sometimes a mimeographed sheet is handed out at the beginning of the smaller group meeting. This sheet might present a hypothetical situation or a case which would be related to the general discussion and which would also have some personal bearing on some or all of the students. Often these situations are suggested by students themselves. Examples of some of the situations raised are given below:

"I find myself unable to become accustomed to this college life. Everyone is so forward and frank—I'm not used to that. There's too much going on. It's a noisy place and I don't like the meals. My roommates are shallow individuals and won't listen to me."

"I know my problem, and I can put it very plainly. Moreover, I'm glad to be able to spill it to someone who, I think, will understand. I'm an individual who has a very normal instinctive sexual drive. So far I have been able to curb my desires and passions and have been brought up to watch my step until marriage. But you know the conflict I'm going through. It adds up to this—life is short, social outlooks change, everybody's doing it, it seems very natural. Seriously, my thinking says 'let yourself go,' but I'm afraid, truly afraid."

"I can't seem to please my professors. I study long hours and what do I get—D's and F's. I write what seems to me to be superior themes for English, and I get lousy marks with comments like: 'This is not the idea' or 'You missed the point.' I grind away on history and when an exam comes, my thoughts go out the window. Biology is right down my alley, but I can't seem to satisfy the instructor. They seem to want you to be a perfectionist. I can't understand it—and I've got to do better in order to stay here."

Such a course is therapeutic in nature, and it is basically an attempt to help the student to understand his own behavior as well as the behavior of others. The type of leadership that is provided should be the same sort of student-centered leadership to be found in a counseling session, rather than the leader-centered procedures common to so many classes. The extreme forms of leadership, such as autocratic or laissez-faire, have been generally discredited, but the slightly more subtle form of leader direction is still to be found in many courses dealing with personal adjustment. Characteristic of such leadership are such procedures as these:



1. The leader directs questions to individual students, naming the student. Reticent students are questioned frequently, in an attempt to bring them into the discussion. Students who question too frequently are ignored by the leader or silenced in a more directive fashion. Students wave their hands to ask permission before questioning the leader. Generally, the majority of the questioning is done by the leader rather than by the students.

2. When the leader answers questions, he frequently answers them in much detail, going far beyond the question that was originally asked. Such answers usually cut off any further immediate questioning.

3. The leader frequently brings in personal experiences and personal feelings on certain issues.

4. The leader may criticize certain expressed attitudes contrary to his own. This is usually quite delicate, but there is, nevertheless, a definite indication of leader disapproval of certain student attitudes.

5. The leader may sometimes become involved in personal arguments with individual students who are bold enough to take issue with him on some subject.

6. A sociometric pattern shows little indication of any group interaction. There is seldom any response if it is not leader initiated. Comments and questions generally flow from the leader to individual students and stop at that point.

On the other hand, under a student-centered type of leadership the following procedures may be noted:

1. The leader's comments are basically reflections of the expressed feelings of the speaker, comments that indicate an understanding of the situation, comments that answer a specific question, or comments that throw the basic issue for discussion back onto the shoulders of the students.

2. There is no attempt made to pressure more reticent students into joining the discussion. The emphasis is on helping the student to feel comfortable and at ease, and, if and when he does speak, the leader's comments will encourage him to participate further.

3. The leader does not feel under any pressure to keep the discussion going at a continuous pace. It will proceed at a rate decided by the students rather than by the leader.

4. The leader at no time criticizes, moralizes, or acts in the role of the judge.

5. The leader is more concerned with reflecting and showing an understanding of the confusion that may have prompted a question, rather than with giving a specific answer to an unanswerable question.

6. A sociometric pattern shows much group interaction. Questions are directed at the leader only as one member of the group, and it is impossible to distinguish the leader by studying the pattern of questions and responses.

An orientation course is an integral part of the total orientation pro-

gram, and it should be a must in every institution of higher learning. Worthy of the consideration of every orientation director is the sort of course where the major emphasis will, at the beginning at least, be on the personal orientation of each individual student; where the lectures and the group discussions will be based primarily on the problems of the students as they see them; where the group discussions will be student centered rather than leader centered, so that the student will feel as free to talk as he would in a therapist's office.

In the Illinois study of fifteen colleges, conducted by the author, some 1,800 students were questioned about orientation services. Some of the conclusions were as follows:

1. The various orientation services were experienced by from one-fourth to three-fourths of the freshmen who were questioned in those institutions where administrative officers had indicated such services were part of the orientation program. The proportion of freshmen experiencing various orientation services was less than would be expected from the extent of the orientation program that was apparently being provided.

2. The formality of the administrative organization with regard to the orientation program did not necessarily indicate the extent to which that program was being experienced by the freshmen, nor did it indicate the effectiveness of the program from the viewpoint of the freshmen. In several cases the proportion of freshmen who experienced certain orientation services in two small colleges, where there was no organized orientation program, was larger than in other types of institutions, where, according to administrative officers, these orientation services were being provided.

3. The orientation services that, according to student opinion, seemed to be most effective were individual faculty advising, faculty lectures and talks, and the dissemination of pertinent information about such things as college requirements for graduation, campus activities, and the philosophy of the college.

4. The orientation services that seemed to be of least value were advising by senior students and participation in various social events, such as field days, picnics, faculty teas, and tours of the campus or city.

#### TYPES OF ORIENTATION PROGRAMS IN AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Different colleges must work out their orientation programs in their own way to meet the needs of their students. The programs mentioned below are presented not as good or bad programs, but simply as examples of the different types of orientation programs that have evolved in different colleges and universities throughout the country.

Grinnell College at Grinnell, Iowa, is a coeducational institution with

an enrollment of about 1,000 students. The orientation program at Grinnell represents two units of work, one in each semester. It consists basically of lectures by faculty members and guest speakers, round-table discussions, tours, group and individual meetings with faculty counselors, and remedial work in reading and study problems.

The program is directed by a committee on orientation, which is made up of the Dean of Men, the Dean of Women, the Director of Counseling, and the Director of Testing. A Personnel Board is responsible for the general program of orientation for new students, not only during New Student Days in September, but throughout the whole year. An active share in the program is taken by the thirty faculty counselors of freshmen and sophomores. The Director of Counseling represents these faculty advisers in the central committee.

The original program in the 1930's met twice a week, was worth one hour of college credit each semester, and included a study of elementary hygiene in addition to problems of general college adjustment and a program of vocational orientation. The program of health education was later assigned to the Departments of Physical Education for Men and for Women. Academic credit is no longer given for the orientation work.

Illinois College at Jacksonville, Ill., is a coeducational institution with an enrollment under 1,000 students. The program at Illinois College lasts for five days. It consists of faculty talks, registration, group meetings, several assemblies, chapel, and a number of social events, including a reception for parents, movies, a campus supper, a party, a reception at the President's house, and an all-college mixer.

Emmanuel College of Boston, Mass., is a women's college with an enrollment under 1,000 students. The Freshman Week at Emmanuel College lasts for four days. All freshmen are required to attend all events. The program consists of registration, general assemblies, several guidance lectures, several orientation lectures, a meeting of the moderators of college clubs and the freshmen, several addresses by student leaders, a "baby party," a meeting of teachers and freshmen, the administration of a psychological examination, and a concert, reception, and tea for the freshmen and their parents.

Orientation lectures are given to the freshmen throughout the year in a one-hour course. The text used for the first semester is Newman's *Idea of a University*. During the second semester the lectures are more practical. The various fields open to women after graduation are described and discussed by guest speakers who have been successful in the respective vocations under consideration.

Individual conferences are held during the year with each student: one in the Dean's office, two in the office of the Dean of Students, and at least one in the office of the Director of Placement.



The University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho, is a coeducational institution with an enrollment between 3,000 and 4,000 students. The orientation program consists largely of a series of meetings held early in the fall semester, at which time students are given instructions on university problems. These meetings are largely conducted by senior students.

At Agnes Scott College in Decatur, Ga., there is a series of opening-day events that run through the months of September and October. Some of these events are the administration of placement tests, numerous social events such as picnics, parties, entertainment by the alumnae, and sings, library classes, student meetings, handbook classes, Bible classes, chapel exercises, vespers, discussion of the Honor System, and the Student Government Pledge Ceremony.

In addition to this series of events specific orientation programs for freshmen are conducted every Monday morning. These programs include such events as class meetings, discussions of campus organizations, the election of class chairmen and cheerleaders, talks, and the showing of movies on mental health, religion, study habits, and vocational guidance. These Monday morning programs are later evaluated by the freshmen.

In huge New York University, with five separate undergraduate schools, the task of freshmen orientation is of necessity handled on an individual school basis, the programs varying according to the specific needs of the school. In general these orientation programs are comprised of talks by representatives of the administration, faculty, and student organizations, in which are emphasized such subjects as the history and purpose of the institution, the regulations governing student, social, and academic life, and, in some instances, the formation of proper study and health habits. Each of the schools provides a guidebook for the new students, prepared usually under the aegis of the student council, and in each an effort is made to acquaint the newcomer with the physical details of the campus.

Wellesley College in Wellesley, Mass., is a women's college with an enrollment between 1,000 and 2,000 students. Freshmen come to the campus two days before the date set for the return of upperclass students. It is the responsibility of each "Village Junior" to give the freshmen instruction concerning college government regulations and to assist them in their adjustments to college life. These Village Juniors are a group of juniors selected by the college government.

At the beginning of the freshman year each student has a conference with a member of the faculty who serves as adviser to a group of freshmen living in the same house. This adviser maintains contact with the group throughout the freshman year and reports her findings to the Dean of Freshmen. These advisers are selected by the administration.

The Director of the Placement Office carries on a program of informal talks with small groups of freshmen in order to inform them of the oppor-



tunities for obtaining odd jobs during the year, summer positions, and of ways for planning various vocations. Speakers from different fields come to the college from time to time to tell of their work and the qualifications necessary for success.

The college orientation program includes a physical examination, a speech test, a tour of the library, and an ear-training test for students electing courses in music. Meetings are held by the College Government Association to introduce the freshmen to the extracurricular activities of the college, and representatives of each of the activities hold office hours during the next few days to enable freshmen to sign or to try out for extracurricular activities.

Each freshman discusses her choice of electives with her faculty adviser some time during the orientation period. The Dean of Freshmen holds regular office hours throughout the orientation period to talk with students who have special problems.

Kent State University at Kent, Ohio, is a coeducational institution with an enrollment of about 5,000 students. The orientation program begins with freshman week. The Director of Student Advising is in charge, and with the aid of a faculty committee arranges the program, which features tests, information about the institution, lectures by academic and personnel deans, and social events. The new students are separated into groups of about thirty each, and each group is under the guidance of a faculty member.

Following this first week a follow-up program is arranged. A one-hour course is offered for one term. New students are registered in several sections, each of about thirty persons. The men and women are registered separately. The Dean of Women teaches the women's sections and the Dean of Men teaches the men's sections. The general plan for both men and women is that of providing information about the university and the university services. Suggestions are given dealing with study habits, and there are provided lectures by members of the faculty, guidance in connection with university regulations, and discussions covering personality, character, and conduct. To supplement the class instruction, many outlines and much printed material are furnished, and a reserve of library readings is set up. The course carries one hour of credit, and all students are given a final examination covering the many topics and class presentations.

## CHAPTER 5 *Vocational Services and Counseling*

It is obviously impossible to separate sharply the various aspects of a total personnel program into pigeonholes labeled vocational services, health services, religious services, housing and dining services, and so on. All are interrelated, and the solution of an occupational "problem" may sometimes depend on the solution of a religious difficulty. Specific personnel services, nevertheless, are necessary for the majority of normal and adjusted students, as well as for the minority of disturbed students. One of the major functions of any personnel service is preventive, and specific services, such as vocational services, often work to head off future difficulties.

By the time a student comes into a college his vocational future has, to some extent at least, been decided. The fact that one has a college degree may, on the one hand, extend his job opportunities, but at the same time it makes it most unlikely that he would be satisfied with a large number of occupations. Not many college graduates would happily fit into such tasks as those of the waitress, the postman, the electric-meter reader, the garbage collector, and so on. The college freshman has already been guided—or misguided—away from the great mass of occupations that occupy American workers and toward the few occupations that hold greater prestige, although, in many cases, less financial remuneration. Effective college vocational services will aid those who have been wisely guided toward college, as well as those who have been misguided or not guided at all. Close cooperation between high schools and colleges is necessary for the effective operation of all college personnel services, but in no service is it more essential than in those concerned with vocations.

There are few decisions that a young person makes that can rank in importance with that of the choice of a career. When our society was less complex, in the days of the pioneers, the choice of a career was still important, but it was a much simpler process if for no other reason than that there was not much of a choice. As society became more complex, the number of jobs available multiplied to fantastic proportions. A committee

of the American Council on Education<sup>1</sup> notes that professional services have increased 9.2 times from 1870 to 1930; the number of chemists has increased 47 times; the number of dentists 8.88 times. Professions such as nursing and librarianship, neither of which existed in 1870, today employ hundreds of thousands of people, mostly women.

These figures refer to only a few of the professional jobs, and many college students are quite unaware, both before and after they start college, of the multiplicity of job opportunities that lie before them. If no vocational-guidance services are available, the chances are that the occupational choice of a large number of college students will be on a very haphazard basis. If students are to come to know their potentialities and their liabilities in our complex and highly competitive world of today, an effective vocational guidance program is essential.

It is dangerous, however, to accept the assumption of some vocational counselors that a scientifically planned job of occupational training and placement will solve all work problems. Occupational unhappiness and ineffectiveness is often an effect more than a cause. A large proportion of the adults of this country who are happily and successfully engaged in the pursuit of a great variety of occupations have had, at some time, to do some adjusting to their occupation. Very often it has not been an re-occupation of their choice, but their adjustment to the occupation has resulted in a different occupational environment. Occupational difficulties are not always solved by better occupational placement, and occupational unhappiness is not always an occupational disease. This in no way, of course, detracts from the necessity of an effective vocational-guidance program. Other things being equal, an individual is going to be happier and more effective when he is engaged in an occupation fitted to his intelligence, his aptitudes, and his interests. An intelligent man will find little challenge in tasks that can be performed by a child. On the other hand, a well-balanced, intelligent man will soon move effectively to more complicated tasks that challenge him, while a disturbed individual may continue at a task that he loathes. Similarly, a well-balanced individual who finds that his occupation is completely contrary to his interests will probably seek some intelligent counsel and try to move into a job that is more in keeping with his interests. The vocational counselor often has as clients individuals who are more in need of therapy than of occupational information and advice. Occupational training and placement must always be thought of as a human problem, rather than a mechanical process by means of which all the oddly shaped pegs are placed in the appropriate oddly shaped holes.

In the nineteenth century there were, relatively speaking, few college

<sup>1</sup> *Occupational Orientation of College Students*, American Council on Education Studies, 1939, Series VI, Vol. III, No. 2, Washington, p. 45.

students, and they were generally of two types. There were students in training for professions such as the ministry or medicine; these usually came from the upper socioeconomic brackets so that vocational placement was not considered as a problem. There were also students, including the great majority of female college students, whose college training was concerned with the social graces. Their education was definitely not an education for making a living, and even today many liberal-arts colleges feel that their task ends after they have given the student a broad general education. Wriston,<sup>2</sup> some years ago, expressed this attitude when he stated that choosing a college career was a less important problem for college students than many people believe, and that career decisions ought properly to be delayed until the end of a liberal-arts course.

A more prevalent attitude, however, is stated by a committee of the American Council on Education:<sup>3</sup>

Arts college students face three decisions which relate both to educational and occupational orientation: first, the choice of a curriculum upon admission; second, the choice of a major at the end of the sophomore year; and third, the choice of a job at graduation. . . . The first decision lies in the area of educational orientation if a tentative vocational choice has already been made on the basis of individual diagnosis. The second decision embraces the provisions of both. The student needs educational counseling in planning his major, but his major will often lead to his ultimate career. Therefore, at this time especially he needs both kinds of orientation. The third decision, the choice of a job at graduation, lies more in the area of occupational orientation. But when a student's diagnosis points to graduate or further professional training, then the decision relates to educational orientation.

Colleges and universities can no longer feel that they have satisfied their obligation to a student merely by granting him a degree upon the completion of 120 semester hours of study. If the college is concerned with the whole student, then it is most certainly concerned with his occupational planning while he is in college and with his occupational success after he leaves college. If the college has respect for the dignity and worth of the human being who comes to it as a student, then it will accept the task of vocational guidance as one of its responsibilities. As originally defined by a committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association,<sup>4</sup> this is the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, to prepare for, to enter upon, and to progress in it. This definition remained at the

<sup>2</sup> Wriston, Henry M., *The Nature of a Liberal College*, Appleton, Wis.: Lawrence College Press, 1937, pp. 171-177.

<sup>3</sup> *Occupational Orientation of College Students*, pp. 13-14.

<sup>4</sup> Report of the Committee on Revision of Principles of the National Vocational Guidance Association, "The Principles and Practices of Educational and Vocational Guidance," *Occupations*, 15:772, May, 1937.



masthead of *Occupations*, the official journal of the National Vocational Guidance Association, until it ceased publication in May, 1952.

The work that must be accomplished in college occupational programs requires the skill of the professionally trained worker and the heart of the understanding human being. The services that are performed by the occupational program are many, but they could be categorized into three fairly distinct areas. These areas are the gathering and dissemination of information, vocational counseling, and placement and follow-up.

## THE GATHERING AND DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION

Among the major tasks of the vocational-guidance worker are the gathering of information about students and about occupations and the dissemination of that information to students. Students will be aided little if the data gathered about them are not passed on to them; and, if they are to make intelligent choices about jobs, there must be a continual flow of up-to-date information about occupations available for them.

If a student is to be intelligent in his occupational planning and choice he must have some knowledge of his abilities, his aptitudes, and his interests. He should have some understanding of his attitudes and how they affect the goals that he seeks. He should be aware of the part that his past and present experiences will play in his occupational future. The vocational services can help the student to find an answer to these questions, and it can assist him in laying a firm foundation for career determination and successful placement. It can see that the student's courses of study have at least some relationship to his future world of work. An American Council on Education Committee describes<sup>5</sup> the college as having a double responsibility:

. . . it should determine whether it offers a program of studies appropriate to the student's interests and expressed goals . . . it may . . . incorporate into its admissions standards procedures designed to obtain a preliminary evaluation of the student in terms of his personal adjustment, motivation in coming to college, and his intellectual capacity for college work.

Care must be taken, however, that the student's college education does not degenerate into a strictly vocational training. The college is not a vocational-training school. A higher education should help the student in his future occupation, but if he is trained only for making a living he may not do too well in the more complicated processes of actually living. The purpose of a college education is not to improve one's technical training,

<sup>5</sup> *Helping Students Find Employment*, American Council on Education Studies, 1949, Series VI, Vol. XIII, No. 12, Washington, p. 13.

although it may help a technician to live a happier and more effective life.

Personal records started in the public school will provide valuable information for vocational guidance. Not only will they provide the vocational counselor with standardized test results, but they may also give him some indication of the impressions that the student left with various teachers, of the activities in which he participated, of his out-of-school work experience, and of the attitude of his peer group toward him. Close cooperation between the school and the college is necessary if such information is to be provided by the school for the college. Some colleges are able to get scattered bits of information from some schools, but in many cases the college has to start from the beginning in the gathering of information about the student.

Information may be gathered about the student throughout his college experience, and it is likely that the most extensive cumulative record will be found in the vocational office. In an institution with numerous personnel services, various offices may keep records on a student. Sometimes this is necessary, but sometimes there is a wasteful duplication, and sometimes the keeping of records serves no particular purpose at all. An admissions office will have a record of a student at least from the time he applies for admission until the time he is admitted. In a large university the admissions office frequently forwards the records that it has gathered to the registrar of the school or college where the student is pursuing his studies. This would be one major set of records where the chief emphasis would be on the academic career of the student. A personnel department or a counseling center might also have a cumulative record about the student, but in this case the emphasis would be on his total personality picture. Many of these records, such as verbatim reports of counseling sessions, or counselor impressions of the student, would be strictly confidential, to be seen by no one but the counselor.

A typescript, part of which reads as follows, would obviously be considered as confidential information. When the student talks in this way to the counselor about a faculty member, he assumes that the counselor will keep this information to himself.

STUDENT: . . . and it's more than I can stand. She's pushed me now for three years and I'm just not going to take any more.

COUNSELOR: Uh-hum. . . .

STUDENT: God damn it, doesn't she realize how some of us feel. If you crawl to her you'll be O.K. but I'm not going to crawl, and she's not going to get me to quit either, although I know that's what she wants. (Long pause.) But I wonder what she'll do now . . . I Guess she's got me over a barrel.

COUNSELOR: You mean you're in a sort of a spot.

Nor would this comment, made by a counselor after a student had come in for a chat, be available for anyone else:

*Note:* Mary Dodd seemed very vague as she talked about her academic plans. She frequently interrupted a comment before it was finished. At times it was difficult to make sense out of what she was saying. On two occasions she appeared to gaze into space for a minute or two. Several times she mentioned her fear of being attacked by men when she was alone.

A placement office could have still another type of record, where there would be an attempt to build up the sort of information that an employer wants to see when he is inquiring about prospective workers. Copies of two of the forms filled out by students who come to the Boston University Placement Office are shown in Appendix 14 and Appendix 15.

In many institutions there are these three distinct types of records: the academic type of record kept by the registrar, the confidential personal record kept by the counseling center, and the placement record kept by the placement service. It is generally agreed that some central file of information is desirable, but the extent to which this is possible depends on many factors. The size of the institution, for example, may make it next to impossible to have one main central file of information on the students. Nor would a central file be desirable or possible in some large city institutions that have various schools and colleges scattered throughout the city. Very often the possibility of centralization depends on the physical setup of the college buildings.

The offices housing the vocational services would seem to be a logical place to build up the major set of records. The information first collected by the admissions office and the information collected by the registrar should be in the student's folder in the vocational-guidance office. However, while the admissions office may have little need for the information it has gathered, the registrar may have constant need for reference to information normally kept in his office. If the registrar has easy access to a central file, there is no reason why the information that his office collects should not be in that file. If, however, he does not have access to the central file, he must retain his own information or keep a duplicate file.

More often than not the vocational-guidance center and the counseling service will be in the same building and may often be regarded as the same service. Some students who come for assistance may need therapeutic counseling while others require vocational guidance. Some personnel workers may function strictly as psychometrists, others as therapists, and some may have a dual role. A great deal of the testing that is done may be of the sort that gives necessary information to aid in occupational choice and in placement. Such information may be available for future employers and interested faculty members and teachers. In the counseling situation, however, the sort of information that one would get from the



Rorschach would not be the information that would be used by a placement office, although it might be used by the counselor in the total counseling process. Such information, as well as the information that the counselor would receive as the counseling progressed, would be for the client only. There is an obvious need for more than one file. The one central file could contain the great mass of information, grades, test results, recommendations from teachers and others, extracurricular activities, work experience, and so on, while the much smaller file in the counselor's office would contain the confidential information. The counselor might use the information in the central file, but the placement officer would not use the information in the counselor's file.

The placement office is the logical point of culmination for the greater part of the information that has been gathered about the student during his stay in college. Some test results would be considered confidential, and certainly all the information that results from a counseling session would also be kept in the confidential file of the counselor. Many placement officers would probably consider that a good deal of the information that had been gathered was extraneous and not of value as an aid to the employer.

Different employers will want different types of information. A superintendent of schools will probably want some information that would not be considered important by the personnel manager of a large store. Nevertheless, there is a good deal of information that will be sought by all employers, regardless of their particular field. What is some of the information that a vocational-guidance office might be expected to have gathered?

1. *Information forwarded by the public school and information gathered by the admissions office.* The information forwarded by the public school will likely be inadequate, and, in some cases, much of it will be of little value. The information gathered by the admissions officer will likely include such things as high-school academic record, record of participation in student activities, work experience, and letters of recommendation from teachers, principals, and other individuals. Some admissions offices will also have the results of a test battery which may be administered to all students or only to those whose high-school record is below a "clear admittance" point. These tests are usually concerned with the measurement of the student's intelligence, his academic achievement, and his capacity in English. Tests which are used frequently by admissions offices are the Ohio State Psychological Examination, the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, and the Cooperative English Test. Many colleges use the School Aptitude Test of the College Entrance Examination Board and a variety of tests of academic achievement. A multiplicity of aptitude tests are available for different schools and colleges, tests for



would-be teachers, doctors, lawyers, engineers, artists, musicians, commercial workers, and so on. In many schools, however, these tests are used as a guidance battery after the student has been admitted to a school rather than as part of the admissions battery to help determine what school or college the student should enter if he is to be allowed to enter at all. Interest inventories are in a somewhat similar position, in that they are more often administered as part of a guidance test battery than as part of an admissions battery. Again, it would seem reasonable that an interest inventory would be helpful to an individual when he is being admitted to college and might spare him the frustration of being placed in an area of study where he has no basic interests.

2. *Information from a battery of guidance tests administered after the student has been admitted.* As has been indicated, some of the tests given by the guidance department might better be given by the admissions department to aid the student in his choice of a particular branch of study. On the other hand, there are many paper-and-pencil tests that will probably be answered more accurately when the student is aware that the answers will not affect his entrance into college. The admissions battery is to help the administration determine which students will be admitted to the college, whereas the guidance battery is to aid those students who have been admitted to the college. A Kuder Interest Inventory might aid a liberal-arts college student in planning his future field of specialization, but it would probably be more effective if it were given to a future school of education student before his admission to the school rather than after. A discussion of a percentile rank of 3 in the area of social service will likely be more helpful to a student in a liberal-arts college than to one in a school of education.

A guidance battery of tests may include tests that have not been given by the admissions office in such areas as academic capacity, subject-matter achievement, aptitudes, and interests. Personality tests are becoming increasingly common as a part of a guidance battery, and in some cases they are being used by admissions offices. There are few personality tests, however, that could be of benefit to an admissions office, even if that office considered personality as one of the factors affecting admission. It would be obviously unjust to prevent a student from experiencing a higher education because of the results of a personality test, with the exception, of course, of some cases where there was every indication of an extreme disturbance requiring immediate attention. Psychometrists, however, are by no means in complete agreement when it comes to naming tests that will clearly indicate such a possibility. The occupation for which the student is training would also be an important factor in the consideration of such a matter. A personality test might give indications of a fairly extreme disturbance that would raise some question about the wisdom of

the student going into a school of education or a school of nursing, but it would not mean that the student should not pursue his higher education in other fields which were less of a service nature. Even here, however, it is extremely difficult to say that a student should be barred from going into teaching because of certain personality deviations indicated on tests such as the Rorschach or the Thematic Apperception Test, or on the pencil-and-paper variety such as the Heston, the Bell, the Guilford-Martin, and others. Personality tests may be used by admissions offices to help a student, but they should not be thought of as a means of barring a student from a college. When they are used as part of a guidance battery their sole purpose is to help the student to understand himself more effectively.

Personality tests are used by vocational centers to aid a student in his occupational planning. This is particularly true in vocational-guidance centers where personal adjustment is considered to be necessary in order to achieve vocational adjustment. In such cases the vocational counselor is capable of functioning as a therapist, as well as a source of occupational information. The interpretation of many tests, particularly those of the projective type, is a highly complicated matter, and if the results of such tests were available for all interested personnel workers there would be more chance of misuse than of use. The Rorschach is a test that might be used by a therapeutically oriented and trained vocational counselor, but the interpretation of such a test would not belong in records that were being used for purposes of placement.

3. *The registrar's records of scholastic standing.* These have an obvious place in the central file. Employers are interested in grades made by a student and in his academic effectiveness in particular areas of study. A student who can do no better than C in a history course is not likely to be considered very enthusiastically by a superintendent of schools as a history teacher. A vocational counselor will also be aware of discrepancies between grades and other indicators of capacity, and he will attempt to aid the student in understanding himself more thoroughly if he happens to be an "underachiever" or an "overachiever." Both types of students are frequently in need of counseling of a therapeutic nature.

4. *A record of the student's co-curricular activities and his outside work experience.* The student whose record remains blank as far as nonacademic experiences are concerned is one who should be noted by a vocational-guidance bureau. The college student who appears to be moving toward graduation with only the bare essentials necessary for graduation, and nothing in the way of co-curricular or outside work experiences, should be helped to understand the importance of such activities in the world of work. On the other hand, many students have so many outside duties that all they can get out of college is a degree, and it is difficult to see how a student who has to work forty hours a week can possibly ex-

perience a real education. Such students quite frequently are in need of counseling, while occupational information may be of value to other students who simply do not realize the value of college activities that are not strictly academic.

Every student should be helped to an awareness that a college education must include more than the experiences in the classroom. This is not the sole responsibility of the vocational services; and a broad experience during one's college years is beneficial in many ways other than vocational. It is the responsibility of the vocational services, however, to see that all students are aware of the occupational importance of a variety of experiences other than those found in the college classroom.

5. *Information supplied by the health service.* This information may be of particular value to the vocational-guidance office. The physical demands of many jobs may be such that occupational dissatisfaction will be likely if the student does not measure up to certain physical standards. There is no sharp line, however, between physical and mental ills, and any complete report from an efficient health service will attempt to give a total picture of the individual's physical and mental health as seen by the medical personnel. The physiological aspects of the report will in most cases be more voluminous and more accurate. Even an efficient medical service will find it much easier to detect a weak heart or varicose veins than a variety of neurotic patterns of behavior that may or may not be serious.

6. *A great deal of extraneous material from various sources.* Almost invariably such material will find its way into the cumulative folder in the vocational office and much of it will be of little value. However, other personnel workers such as the director of co-curricular activities, the director of housing and dining services, or the college chaplain, may also contribute material that will be of much value in the vocational guidance of the individual student.

Letters of recommendation have a place in a placement folder, but much of the other material that may come from instructors and advisers should be treated as confidential. It may be of value in counseling, but it is questionable whether it should be used in occupational placement. The information given by teachers and advisers is often highly one-sided, and can be considered as little other than an opinion. Nevertheless, the student who does not leave a good impression with at least a few people in college will not likely be too successful in getting a good job. If information coming in from faculty members and advisers indicates that the student is not leaving a very good impression, counseling may be in order. A student should be helped to understand the reasons for the negative reaction when he is with other people. If this is noted at the freshman level, the personnel services may help the student, so that he will leave



the student going into a school of education or a school of nursing, but it would not mean that the student should not pursue his higher education in other fields which were less of a service nature. Even here, however, it is extremely difficult to say that a student should be barred from going into teaching because of certain personality deviations indicated on tests such as the Rorschach or the Thematic Apperception Test, or on the pencil-and-paper variety such as the Heston, the Bell, the Guilford-Martin, and others. Personality tests may be used by admissions offices to help a student, but they should not be thought of as a means of barring a student from a college. When they are used as part of a guidance battery their sole purpose is to help the student to understand himself more effectively.

Personality tests are used by vocational centers to aid a student in his occupational planning. This is particularly true in vocational-guidance centers where personal adjustment is considered to be necessary in order to achieve vocational adjustment. In such cases the vocational counselor is capable of functioning as a therapist, as well as a source of occupational information. The interpretation of many tests, particularly those of the projective type, is a highly complicated matter, and if the results of such tests were available for all interested personnel workers there would be more chance of misuse than of use. The Rorschach is a test that might be used by a therapeutically oriented and trained vocational counselor, but the interpretation of such a test would not belong in records that were being used for purposes of placement.

3. *The registrar's records of scholastic standing.* These have an obvious place in the central file. Employers are interested in grades made by a student and in his academic effectiveness in particular areas of study. A student who can do no better than C in a history course is not likely to be considered very enthusiastically by a superintendent of schools as a history teacher. A vocational counselor will also be aware of discrepancies between grades and other indicators of capacity, and he will attempt to aid the student in understanding himself more thoroughly if he happens to be an "underachiever" or an "overachiever." Both types of students are frequently in need of counseling of a therapeutic nature.

4. *A record of the student's co-curricular activities and his outside work experience.* The student whose record remains blank as far as nonacademic experiences are concerned is one who should be noted by a vocational-guidance bureau. The college student who appears to be moving toward graduation with only the bare essentials necessary for graduation, and nothing in the way of co-curricular or outside work experiences, should be helped to understand the importance of such activities in the world of work. On the other hand, many students have so many outside duties that all they can get out of college is a degree, and it is difficult to see how a student who has to work forty hours a week can possibly ex-



perience a real education. Such students quite frequently are in need of counseling, while occupational information may be of value to other students who simply do not realize the value of college activities that are not strictly academic.

Every student should be helped to an awareness that a college education must include more than the experiences in the classroom. This is not the sole responsibility of the vocational services; and a broad experience during one's college years is beneficial in many ways other than vocational. It is the responsibility of the vocational services, however, to see that all students are aware of the occupational importance of a variety of experiences other than those found in the college classroom.

5. *Information supplied by the health service.* This information may be of particular value to the vocational-guidance office. The physical demands of many jobs may be such that occupational dissatisfaction will be likely if the student does not measure up to certain physical standards. There is no sharp line, however, between physical and mental ills, and any complete report from an efficient health service will attempt to give a total picture of the individual's physical and mental health as seen by the medical personnel. The physiological aspects of the report will in most cases be more voluminous and more accurate. Even an efficient medical service will find it much easier to detect a weak heart or varicose veins than a variety of neurotic patterns of behavior that may or may not be serious.

6. *A great deal of extraneous material from various sources.* Almost invariably such material will find its way into the cumulative folder in the vocational office and much of it will be of little value. However, other personnel workers such as the director of co-curricular activities, the director of housing and dining services, or the college chaplain, may also contribute material that will be of much value in the vocational guidance of the individual student.

Letters of recommendation have a place in a placement folder, but much of the other material that may come from instructors and advisers should be treated as confidential. It may be of value in counseling, but it is questionable whether it should be used in occupational placement. The information given by teachers and advisers is often highly one-sided, and can be considered as little other than an opinion. Nevertheless, the student who does not leave a good impression with at least a few people in college will not likely be too successful in getting a good job. If information coming in from faculty members and advisers indicates that the student is not leaving a very good impression, counseling may be in order. A student should be helped to understand the reasons for the negative reaction when he is with other people. If this is noted at the freshman level, the personnel services may help the student, so that he will leave

a much more positive impression by the time he is in the occupational market. If this is not noted until the student is graduating, the college can do little for him, and the placement service will probably find that they have a placement problem on their hands.

The faculty interviews that are held each year for all students at the Boston University School of Education are a simple but effective means of helping the student to become aware of the impressions that he is leaving with other individuals. If a counselor is discussing this faculty opinion it is essential that he remain completely impartial and present the faculty comments as their impressions and nothing else. If the counselor moralizes or advises on the basis of such information, there is little chance of insight on the part of the student. The more probable reactions will be resistance and hostility to an impression that is being presented by the counselor as a fact.

A vocational-guidance center, then, must have information of this sort about the student if it is to aid him in his occupational planning and choice. It must also have accurate and up-to-date information about occupations and trends in occupations if it is to be able to make any use of the information it may have about the student. Occupational information has been defined<sup>6</sup> as "accurate and usable information about jobs and occupations. It also includes information about industries and processes insofar as such information is directly related to jobs. Occupational information also includes pertinent and usable facts about occupational trends and the supply and demand of labor. . . ."

This information is essential in the carrying out of vocational counseling and advisement. It is also necessary in the construction of the curriculum of study, especially in professional schools. A school of education would be performing a doubtful service today if it did not emphasize the training of elementary-school teachers rather than that of secondary-school teachers, since there is an urgent need for elementary-school teachers and a surplus of secondary-school teachers. A school of nursing that was unaware of the increasing demand for nurses with some degree of psychiatric training would not be giving its students the training that they require. A liberal-arts college that is aware of the changed occupational status of its graduates, when compared with the liberal-arts graduate of fifty years ago, shows this awareness by its revision of the educational experience of its students.

Occupational opportunities are in a constant state of flux, and there is every indication that this constantly changing pattern will come to be accepted as the normal pattern rather than being something of short duration. Occupational information is sometimes obsolete almost as soon

<sup>6</sup> Shartle, Carroll L., *Occupational Information* (Copyright, 1946, by Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York), p. 1. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

as it is published. A vocational-guidance center must have a constant flow of information coming in, and an equally constant survey of existing information to check its present accuracy.

Practically every male college student is, in due time, going to become a working man; and the majority of female students will, for a time, at least, be concerned with the occupational market. Even those female students who will marry before having been engaged in any full-time job should have some knowledge of the world of work and be prepared to take their place in it. The total educational experience of every college student should include an orientation to, and an understanding of, the broad pattern of occupations throughout the country. A professional school could be expected to give as complete as possible an understanding of the occupation for which the students are being prepared, but even in a professional school an understanding of the total occupational picture is necessary. An understanding of the occupations of others should be as much a part of a total college education as is the understanding of the student's planned occupation. Obviously this task is not limited to the vocational-guidance office, but the gathering of the greater part of the information that will be very necessary for this understanding is the job of the vocational services.

Actually, there has been too much of a differentiation between the terms "gathering" and "dissemination," and one might almost suppose that there was no relation between the two. Rather than have a vocational-guidance office spend all its time gathering vocational information en masse, and then disseminate it to all the students, it would be more desirable to have it aid the individual student to gather the information pertinent to him. If it is the task of the individual student, with the aid of the vocational-guidance office, to gather his own occupational information, then the problem of dissemination becomes a somewhat minor one. In the methods of gathering information that are described below, it is assumed that, while the vocational office is the recipient of much printed occupational information, the student is working through the vocational-guidance office to gather his own information. The vocational-guidance office will gather much general information, but the specific information pertinent to the individual student will be *gathered by* him, rather than be *disseminated to* him.

The United States government is one of the major sources of occupational information. The Department of Labor, the Employment Services, and the Bureau of the Census publish a great deal of material describing occupations, occupational opportunities, and occupational trends. Numerous other Federal agencies distribute much occupational information in their own particular fields. The U.S. Office of Education, for example, is continually distributing up-to-date educational information of voca-



tional significance. State agencies also distribute much material on jobs and job opportunities within the state.

A continual flow of information is available from the future employers of the college students. A vocational-guidance office would be expected to be able to help the future graduate of a liberal-arts college to have an understanding of the occupations now employing graduates of liberal-arts colleges, of what the employers of the graduates are looking for, and of what the trends for the future may be. Colleges, like high schools, too frequently ignore the fact that the major source of employment of their graduates is in their own back yard. If the future employers of the students are easily available, it would seem only reasonable that the colleges make use of their services. Every neophyte teacher is going to talk eventually to a school superintendent about a job. The vocational-guidance office should make sure that they talk to and listen to such superintendents long before they get to the job-hunting stage. Then they will at least have some idea of what their future employers are looking for when talking to job applicants.

The graduates of a college not only are an excellent source of occupational information, but they may also serve as a means of evaluation of the occupational effectiveness of the college's educational program. From their own experiences, alumni can indicate the strong points that helped them to get a job, to hold it, and to move ahead, and the gaps that may have prevented them from getting a job or moving ahead in an occupational field.

A modern vocational-guidance office will have its own library of books, pamphlets, and articles from professional journals, trade magazines, popular magazines, departments of the Federal and state governments, chambers of commerce, boards of trade, private and philanthropic agencies, service organizations, veterans' organizations, and vocational research and publishing organizations. This material should cover a wide range of occupations rather than just those occupations or types of occupations that usually employ the students of the school.

It is probable that the vast majority of college students have received, and will continue to receive, their occupational information as a member of a group, or on their own, rather than in an individual session with a vocational-guidance specialist. A vocational library is the commonest means of making occupational information available for the student, although an easy-to-get-at vocational information center is probably a more accurate description than the word library. The logical place for the location of such an occupational information center would be the vocational-guidance office, since here the student could have access to vocational-guidance specialists if his reading did not satisfy his vocational problem.

Firsthand occupational information is gathered by some students in



some colleges through actual work experience in different occupations. This work experience may occur during the regular school year as part of the total educational problem; it may be carried out by the student on his own; or it may occur during college vacation periods. However, unless work experience is a carefully organized and supervised part of the student's total educational program, it is unlikely that it will mean anything more to him than a means of increasing his income. It will not add too much in the way of occupational understanding, and it may even give the student a rather one-sided slant on certain occupations. Work experience can be valuable. It can also be worthless.

Information may be gathered through a course in occupations, and the work experience mentioned above may be a part of the course. The value of the traditional occupations course, which stressed little more than factual occupational information, is to be questioned. Even in the group situation occupational information must be tailored to meet the individual needs of the student. As a matter of fact, the experiences of the individual as a member of a working group will probably be of greater importance, occupationally, than the retention of the specific occupational facts and figures that may be discussed or distributed during the course.

While it is true that the more traditional occupations course has fallen into disrepute, it is also true that some colleges are now offering courses in even more specific occupational areas. Hoppock,<sup>7</sup> for example, describes such a course, "Employment Opportunities in Guidance and Personnel Work," being offered at New York University.

An occupations course may sometimes be an individual project, where each student works on a monograph on the occupation for which he is preparing. This procedure has been followed with the freshmen at Boston University School of Education, and it occasionally results in the student changing his mind about his future occupation. A somewhat similar plan of individual projects has been brought together into workbook form by Hahn and Brayfield.<sup>8</sup>

It is likely that occupations courses of the future will contain little of the dry occupational dust that has characterized so many such courses in the past. They will more likely be psychologically oriented to the individual student's adjustment to the world of work. Their objective will be to help the individual to prepare for the occupational world, so that he can adjust to it, rather than to test his ability to retain meaningless occupational data.

Much vocational information may come from certain faculty members.

<sup>7</sup> Hoppock, Robert, *Group Guidance*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949, p. 187.

<sup>8</sup> Hahn, Milton E., and Arthur H. Brayfield, *Job Exploration Workbook*, Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1945.

In many colleges and professional schools the individual faculty member is a more important person in the supplying of vocational information and in the placement of students than is the vocational-guidance office. Students would do well to realize early in their college career that a few faculty members are likely to play a very important part in their occupational placement in the future. In many professional schools, such as schools of nursing and schools of education, some faculty members may have a much more intimate acquaintance with employers than do the placement officers. Thus quite frequently school superintendents will contact faculty members in a school of education and the better students will be placed in the better jobs before their names even get to the placement office.

It has already been indicated that this emphasis on occupational awareness does not mean that the college should become a technical school. A broad general education and a professional education are not the same as a technical education. It does mean, however, that the school accepts the belief that for all of us the preparation for, and the placement in, a job is one of the most important of all events. Our higher education should be broad and cultural, but it is not fulfilling its responsibility if it does not prepare us in a realistic manner to adjust to the world of work. The college student of today is seldom of the landed gentry. He is more likely to be a workman's son, and there is a good chance that he too will be a workman.

Until the time that a vocational choice is made, the student should experience a broad educational program including classes, forums, assemblies, group discussions, institutes, and field trips to seek occupational orientation and to build a background of occupational information that will aid in the future selection of a career. Although an occupation has been selected, information should still be available on occupations in general; and further information will still be needed on the occupation selected and on occupations associated with the one chosen.

## VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

This section is concerned with the process that takes place when the individual student goes into the vocational-guidance office and talks about his vocational problems to the vocational-guidance specialist. This specialist is usually described as a vocational counselor although the greater part of his work is person-to-person vocational guidance rather than counseling, if we are to accept the definition of counseling as it is considered in this book. A later chapter will be devoted to counseling, which is considered here in terms of therapy. The complexity of the emotional disturbance requiring counseling must be such that it can be relieved

only by the development of greater insight on the part of the client, and this insight is the result of the interaction between the counselor and the client. Counseling is viewed as the process which enables the individual to accept and to use information and advice, and, if necessary, to accept an unchangeable environment and thereby to some extent change that environment without being overcome by it. When the client gets to the point where he can rationally discuss possible choices and courses of action, he is in need of guidance rather than counseling. This point of view is opposed to a more omnibus type of definition, which views counseling as an all-inclusive affair practically synonymous with guidance. The chief difficulty with this type of definition is that it takes in so much that it loses all meaning. Practically anyone who helps another person in any way becomes a counselor. A student experiences vocational counseling when he is told that if he accepts job A he will receive more money for fewer working hours than if he accepts job B, just as does the student who comes into the office, highly upset, and says, "I can't stand that damned job that I'm on for another minute, and the only thing left for me is to quit right now." Similarly, with this omnibus type of definition, it would appear that any vocational problem will require vocational counseling. When a perfectly adjusted John Howell comes into the office and asks, "Do you know of any place where I could get some part-time work?" he will experience counseling just as will Harry Brown, who says, "I'm just about at the end of my rope, and if I don't get a job within the next few days, damn it, I'm going to have to do something pretty drastic. I'm not going to quit school and I'm not going to starve either."

The vocational counselor may help the student to solve his vocational problem in many different ways. He may help him by the relatively simple process of an intellectual discussion in which vocational information may be passed on to the student. He may advise him with regard to certain things that might be done to ease his vocational difficulties. He may work with the student to change his environment, and, finally, he may help the student by the process of counseling. In many cases, of course, the total solution might require a combination of some or all of these procedures.

The vocational counselor should be prepared and equipped for counseling of this nature, since frequently he will have no indication of whether client John Smith is in need of vocational guidance or counseling. The client who can approach his vocational problem in a rational and intellectual manner may benefit much from vocational guidance, while the individual who is so confused and disturbed that he cannot accept the vocational facts of life will be in need of counseling. An intellectual approach by the client does not mean, of course, that the vocational counselor can assume that he can approach the problem in an intellectual manner. Nor does an emotional outburst in the first few minutes mean that the client is



definitely in a desperate situation. Such a client may be less in need of counseling than is the apparently calm and rational individual.

Vocational guidance is the general responsibility of all personnel workers, but it is the particular responsibility of vocational counselors and others who staff the vocational-guidance office. The gathering of information about the student and the general gathering and dissemination of information about occupations have already been discussed as a basic task of the vocational-guidance office. It is obvious that further information about the student will result from the counseling process. When the gathering and dissemination of information is done on a highly individual basis, with the counselor and the student working together, this process itself may be either vocational guidance or vocational counseling.

In the past few years a good deal of consideration has been given to the role of occupational information in counseling. Brayfield,<sup>9</sup> for example, distinguishes between informational, readjustive, and motivational applications of occupational information. Somewhat along the same vein, Christenson<sup>10</sup> has referred to the instructional, instrumental, distributional, and therapeutic functions of occupational information in counseling. Both writers tend to think of counseling in its broader sense, and, in effect, are thinking of vocational counseling and vocational guidance as being synonymous terms.

It is the feeling of the author that much of the debate over correct and incorrect procedures in counseling is simply a matter of semantics. The greater part of what Christenson and Brayfield describe as vocational counseling, for example, would appear to this author to be more aptly described as vocational guidance. If we are to confine counseling to its narrower, therapeutic, aspect, then the "instructional," the "instrumental," the "distributional," and the "informational" functions mentioned by Christenson and Brayfield are functions of vocational guidance rather than vocational counseling.

The client-centered counselor does not feel, of course, that there is no place for the offering of vocational information. He does feel, however, that there is little point in offering information when the individual is in such an irrational state that he can make no use of it. When he is rational enough so that occupational information can be used, then occupational information should be available, and the discussion of such information with the student is considered to be vocational guidance. There is no doubt that occupational information can have a therapeutic effect. The client-centered counselor, however, would feel that the student with

<sup>9</sup> Brayfield, Arthur H., "Putting Occupational Information Across," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 8:492, Autumn, 1948.

<sup>10</sup> Christenson, Thomas E., "Functions of Occupational Information in Counseling," *Occupations*, 28:11-14, October, 1949.



low ability but high ambitions would probably be in need of counseling to get to the stage where vocational information that points out the futility of his occupational ambition would be accepted. It is a question in such a case whether the vocational information has had a therapeutic effect, or whether therapy has enabled the client to accept the reality of the information.

Students whose occupational choices are unrealistic may be in need of vocational counseling or vocational guidance or both. In the experience of the author, most students can have such a problem solved by vocational guidance, and occupational information plays an important part in the solution of the problem. Some students, however, will refuse to accept the vocational facts of life, and some of these are individuals who will appear to go along with the more dominant counselor. If the counselor never gets an expression of the student's feelings and attitudes, he will never know to what extent the student can accept and use vocational information. If he does not know, he will obviously be wasting time or even injuring the individual who is in need of counseling rather than guidance.

It is obvious that in vocational guidance occupational information may be an important motivational factor. On the other hand, a student will sometimes verbally resist the implications of the discussion, and then counseling would be appropriate and practical. The student might also, of course, resist the implications while being passive and outwardly accepting. In this case counseling would also be desirable, but whether it would be appropriate or practical or possible would be another question.

The principles of diagnosis prior to the use of occupational information, emphasized by both Christenson and Brayfield, might be accepted with some qualifications. During the rational discussion that often describes the process of vocational counseling, the counselor can fairly easily determine what he must know in order to help the client effectively. If a youth's family is moving to Paris, and he wants to know what sort of school will be available for him, the immediate "problem" can be solved as long as the counselor knows about the school situation in Paris. In other cases, a good deal of diagnosis may be necessary if the individual is to be helped. There is also indisputable evidence to show that while with some clients diagnosis plus counseling has produced positive results, with other clients counseling without previous diagnosis has produced equally positive results.

Wrenn is another college personnel worker who feels that vocational guidance and vocational counseling are the same thing. He describes the process of helping the student by the following figure:<sup>11</sup>

<sup>11</sup> Wrenn, C. Gilbert, "Training of Vocational Guidance Workers," *Occupations*, 29:416, March, 1951.

Help through:

- |                |   |                 |                                 |
|----------------|---|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Groups      |   |                 |                                 |
| 2. Individuals | { | 1. Advising (a) | {                               |
|                |   | 2. Counseling   |                                 |
|                |   |                 | {                               |
|                |   |                 | 1. Information and analysis (b) |
|                |   |                 | 2. Therapy                      |
|                |   |                 | 1. Nondirective                 |
|                |   |                 | 2. Interpretive                 |

The author would change this somewhat to:

Help through:

- |             |   |   |                         |                          |
|-------------|---|---|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Groups      |   | { | Client-centered therapy |                          |
| Individuals | { |   | Counseling              | Information and analysis |
|             |   |   | Guidance                | Advice                   |
|             |   |   |                         | Interpretation           |

It can be seen that the only real difference is one of definition. The major task of the vocational counselor is vocational guidance. The greater part of his work is intellectual in nature, and in this intellectual vocational area he has a full-time job. The occupational world is becoming increasingly complicated, and the personnel worker who can keep up-to-date with occupational conditions and trends and know where to get occupational information and how to use it has probably just about all the work that he can handle. The vocational-guidance specialist is in a position, however, where he will sometimes have to either function as a therapist or refer the client to another counselor. Referral is very often impossible, and it is sometimes undesirable, since the line between vocational guidance and counseling is often very thin. The vocational-guidance specialist should be able to function as a counselor if he is to perform his total task as it should be performed.

From a strictly utilitarian point of view it would appear to be undesirable to attempt to train the vocational-guidance specialist as a short-term psychiatrist. The training of the psychiatrist is probably longer than that of any other professional worker. He generally works only with extreme deviates in a curative role rather than with neurotics in a preventive role, and during his lifetime he treats relatively few people. The first eight years of the psychiatrist's training give him a medical degree and a general understanding of what ails the human body and what can be done about some of the things that ail it. They do little to prepare him for the role of a therapist, and the therapeutic aspect of his training comes after he has received his medical degree. In contrast to the clinical psychologist, he is organically oriented, since the medical doctor's task continues to be basically organic.

It is interesting to note that some psychiatrists themselves feel that their

medical training has been more of a handicap than an asset in the practice of psychotherapy. Colby<sup>12</sup> writes:

Outstanding among educationally induced handicaps are the detachment and dehumanization achieved in medical school. One learns to become interested almost entirely in diseases per se rather than in the people who have the diseases. A once-active imagination may become stunted in the name of a false scientific objectivity. The traditional medical single cause-and-effect concept of disease narrows the observation and sympathetic understanding of inter-human processes. . . . In the matters of treatment also, medical attention directs the axis of the student's interest toward mechanisms that can be seen and touched.

The same author<sup>13</sup> points out that, by the time the medical doctor has become a psychotherapist, his medical diagnostic judgment has been impaired to such an extent that he is no longer a reliable medical man and should refrain from doing physical examinations on his patients. This might at least raise some question as to the value of spending so many years in learning what must be unlearned before one can become capable in one's profession. Psychologically, the training of the clinical psychologist is more intensive than that of the psychiatrist. His orientation is basically psychological, and he is certainly far better equipped to perform nonorganic therapy than is the medical doctor.

There is a growing realization that it is difficult to separate "vocational guidance" and "psychotherapy" into two distinct and separate compartments. It is increasingly obvious that the vocational counselor will be ineffective if he has no understanding of psychotherapy. A recent study by Remmie and Bozeman<sup>14</sup> shows that approximately eighty per cent of the patients studied in a psychiatric clinic during a three-year period were disturbed by vocational problems which were coincident with, or a result of, their overall emotional problems. Over two-thirds of those patients presenting vocational problems were in need of psychotherapy, or vocational counseling, rather than vocational guidance.

Another indication of the realization of the role of psychotherapy in the solution of vocational problems is the creation of a new counseling position by the Veterans' Administration. To qualify for the position candidates must have completed three years of graduate study in counseling and guidance, including one year in which therapeutic counseling techniques were employed, and including six months of counseling disabled clients.

Further research has also provided evidence to indicate that an individual has vocational problems because he is emotionally disturbed,

<sup>12</sup> Colby, Kenneth Mark, *A Primer for Psychotherapists*, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951, pp. 20-21.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 38.

<sup>14</sup> Remmie, Thomas A. C., and Mary F. Bozeman, *Vocational Services for Psychiatric Clinic Patients*, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1952.

rather than being emotionally disturbed because of his vocational problems. In a discussion of recent developments in the theory of vocational choice, Small<sup>15</sup> postulates the theory that vocational choice is an ego function and involves a compromise between objective and subjective factors. His interpretation of the results of a study of 144 boys was that the better-adjusted boys threw the full weight of their reality perceptions into their first choice, but fantasy was given some satisfaction in the second choice. In the maladjusted boys, however, fantasy dominated the first choice, and yielded somewhat to reality in the second choice. He further theorizes that once reality becomes the chief consideration in choice making, it probably remains the major determinant. To switch from one occupation to another may be evidence of accurate reality perception in one person and of poor perception in another, depending upon the reality factors involved.

How about the counseling training of the vocational-guidance specialist? His basic task may not be therapy, but he is in obvious need of training in this area. In the short time that is available, should the counselor-training institution try to give him a few of the understandings and skills that are possessed by the clinical psychologist or the analyst, or will this do more harm than good? There is no question here as to whether the techniques and the methods used by the clinical psychologist and the analyst are good or bad. The question simply is: Is it good, in the short time available, to give the vocational-guidance trainee a smattering of the skills and the understandings of the analyst? Most of the students who enter the vocational-guidance office are going to be "guided" and "counseled" by personnel workers whose major field of study has not been in the area of psychotherapy. Their training in the field of counseling will have been meager. This may not be as it should, but for many years to come the counseling that goes on in a vocational-guidance office will be performed by people who have little training in the area of psychotherapy, although the new position inaugurated by the Veterans' Administration is a move in the right direction.

This is the major reason why the author feels that the counseling in vocational-guidance offices should be client centered. Too often the vocational counselor who sees himself as an amateur analyst or a short-term clinical psychologist finds himself in a bottomless pit without the tools by means of which he can extricate himself without damaging the client. Analysis is long-term therapy with extreme deviates, and the therapy practiced by the clinical psychologist is usually equally long-term with more extreme cases. Client-centered therapy is admirably suited for the short-term therapy that is often needed in the vocational counselor's office.

<sup>15</sup> Small, Leonard, "A Theory of Vocational Choice: Recent Developments," *The Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, 1:29-31, Autumn, 1952.



The counselor can be effective with a fairly brief training period, although this should not be taken to mean that the training of the client-centered counselor is a short-term affair. There is less chance of client damage, and referral for further counseling presents less of a problem.

Let us follow sophomore John Moore and see what kind of person-to-person vocational guidance and vocational counseling he might receive during his stay in Columbo College. If Columbo is a small college, John will probably have available the services of a central vocational-guidance office, a student-counseling center, or some similar guidance office. If he is in a school or department of a large institution he will probably have available the services of a personnel director or counselor who serves his particular school or department. If this is so, it will be likely that John will be referred to the central office by the school counselor. If he does happen to drop in to the central office on his own, the school counselor will be immediately notified of this fact. He will probably give the central office information that he may have available, if it is not confidential, and the central office will keep him up-to-date on what happens to John.

In Boston University an attempt is made to have the students feel that the personnel director or school counselor is their first source of assistance, if they have any sort of personal difficulty that they wish to talk over with someone. This means that the majority of the students who go to the central counseling center have been referred there by school or college counselors. While this avoids the confusion of having a continual flow of students who are relatively unknown to the school counselor dropping in to the central counseling office, it is realized that some students will feel that they would rather go to the central office than go to their school counselor. If the central office has had no notification of referral, they find out if the student is aware of the services that are offered in his own school. Sometimes he is unaware of these services and may be referred back to his school counselor. On the other hand, if he indicates a desire to remain at the central office, he is allowed to do so.

The Director of Student Personnel in Boston University's School of Education offers a guidance test battery, but does not have an extensive vocational-guidance battery. Students who feel they are in need of such testing are referred to the central testing bureau, and the student has the choice of having the local counselor act as the test interpreter, or having the central office interpret the test results.

Let us assume that John Moore is in a smaller college where the testing and counseling are confined to one central student counseling center. Let us also assume that the college has done an effective job of getting the students to feel that the center is not only for those students who, in their own terminology, are "half-gone," but for all students who would like some assistance in the solution of problems common to all students.

John Moore, then, comes into a main office. He sees a pleasant room and pleasant people. He is greeted at the desk by a smiling and friendly girl. She gives him a cheery, but not forced, "Hello," and asks what she can do to help him. Although John does not know it, this girl and the other girls who are working in the office are all personnel workers. They are well aware of the importance of the initial contact, which is usually with "a girl at the desk." They are not psychologists, but they know something about the psychology of human behavior. They do not begrudge the time they spend in in-service discussions about the problems that arise during their working day. When Miss Johnson at the desk greets John, she is greeting him in exactly the same manner that he will later be greeted by the counselor.

John tells Miss Johnson that he was told by a friend that the counseling center would give students tests to help them find out whether they were on the right track, or whether it might be better to go into some other field. Miss Johnson talks along with John, and he apparently feels that his vocational confusion can be remedied if he can take some of the tests offered at the center. Miss Johnson is aware that tests are no panacea, and she realizes that John is in need of some insight with regard to the role of tests and their limitations. She makes an appointment with a counselor for the next afternoon. If John had been under great stress, if he had talked about having to see someone right away, Miss Johnson would have attempted to get an immediate appointment for him, and she tries to keep counselor appointments flexible enough so that there will always be room to "squeeze" a person in.

Counselor Brown will check his appointment book and note that he is scheduled to see student Moore the next morning. In practically all cases the counselor will check his records to see what information he has available on John Moore. If the session the next day is to be a rational discussion between two rational individuals, if the counselor is to be able to engage in the discussion more effectively, he should know a good deal about the student. If counseling is necessary, however, there are many counselors who would feel that there will be less likelihood of counselor bias if they avoid checking any records and know John Moore only as he presents himself to them. When John comes into the counselor's office, then, the counselor may know a good deal about him, or he may know nothing more about him than what the secretary has told him. He rises to greet John in a friendly manner, and since John has made the appointment himself he will likely need little encouragement to start talking about the purpose of his visit. He talks in a calm and pleasant manner, and indicates that he is somewhat worried by his academic progress. He had always done well in high school and his high-school guidance counselor had told him that he had above-average intelligence and should have no

difficulty in doing college work. He is now in his sophomore year, at the business college, but he cannot seem to get interested, and his work is getting worse and worse. He has talked it over with some of the other fellows, and they suggested that he should come to the testing center where he could be given some information on his interests and aptitudes. So, can the counselor help him out and give him some tests to find out just what the trouble is about?

What the vocational counselor does at this point will be determined by his own philosophy and orientation to counseling. If he knows nothing at all about John Moore, he might ask numerous questions, so that he may enlarge his understanding, and, after finding out what he can about the student, he will come to some decision as to whether or not the student should be given a battery of tests, be referred to another service, or be told, in a pleasant way, that there is really no need for testing, and that things will probably work out in a satisfactory manner before the end of the year. He might be somewhat less dominant and indicate to the student what tests he should take, including in the suggested battery tests that will give some indication of the student's personality traits. He could also be completely permissive and go along with the student's expressed desire to find out more about his interests and aptitudes, and, when the student indicates that this is definitely what he wants, suggest to him what is available in the way of tests in the area of interests and aptitudes. If information is available on John Moore, it would likely have the greatest effect on the procedures used by the first counselor mentioned above, but little or no effect on the procedures used by the last counselor.

When John returns later for test interpretation he may already have been diagnosed on the basis of this information. The counselor may have come to fairly specific decisions as to John's difficulties and what should be done about them. The resulting session will then be an attempt to tell John what his trouble may be and to advise him as to what he should do about it. Another counselor, however, may feel that the test results represent John's attempt to show where he stands in comparison with other college students. This counselor will think of the test results as nothing more than a means that may be used by John in his struggle to understand himself more effectively. He will continue with the test interpretation only as long as John wants him to, and if at any time John apparently wants to enlarge on some point and forget about the test results, the counselor will go along with him. In his actual interpretation he will never go beyond the claims of the authors, claims that are usually very modest and will be understood by the counselor who reads the test material carefully. His interpretation will generally be broad. He will not say, in referring to a Kuder Interest Inventory score, "You show little interest in the area of the social sciences," nor will he say, "You have a per-



centile rank of 13 in the area of the social sciences." He may say, "In the area of the social sciences you tend to show a good deal less interest than does the average college student with whom you are being compared."

So John Moore finds out about his test results. He may be asked for a great deal of information, and he may be told what tests he should take. The test results may be interpreted to him by the counselor, and he may then be advised as to the next step. He may, on the other hand, be questioned not at all. He may be told what tests are available, and he may get information about them so that he can decide what test he would like to take. He may be told what the test results mean, and he may be helped to make any decisions on the basis of these tests. There is a very good chance that, if John compares his vocational-guidance experience at Columbo College with that of his friend Bill who attends the state university, he will find more differences than similarities. The philosophy of the personnel administrators and the philosophy of the individual counselor will have a marked effect on the vocational guidance experienced by each student who attends an institution of higher education in the United States.

## PLACEMENT AND FOLLOW-UP

Placement is generally considered as the final phase of the vocational-guidance program, but some question may be raised as to the extent to which the student should feel that his alma mater is responsible for his placement. Too many students take the term "guidance" too literally, and the vocational orientation of any student who feels that it is up to the institution to see that he is placed is not complete. When the author was planning to attend the University of Chicago, he was told by an employee of that university that once one became a graduate of the institution it would guarantee a job for him. No institution can do this, and the role of the institution in the matter of placement should be made clear to the student long before he gets to the placement stage. Boston University once assumed some responsibility for the placement of all individuals who were students at the university. Changes had to be made when it was discovered that scores of "students" were taking one part-time course so that they could take advantage of the university placement service. The emphasis in placement, as in counseling, in guidance, and in education, should be on the individual helping himself to solve his difficulties. The institution can help the individual in many ways, but it should be clear that in the long run the real job of placement is in the hands of the individual student.

A Committee of the American Council on Education <sup>10</sup> has stated that

<sup>10</sup> *Helping Students Find Employment*, p. 1.



the primary function of college placement work is to help each new graduate find work in a socially useful occupation appropriate for his particular abilities, interests, and ambitions. Some would add that the placement office services not only each new graduate, but alumni, employers, and undergraduates who are searching for part-time work, summer work, or tryout work experiences.

It is assumed here that the vocational services discussed up to this point have been available for the student. He has already made the preliminary vocational investigations. He has made use of occupational literature and listened to representatives of different vocations talk about their field of work. He has visited different occupations, and he may have had work experience. He may also have experienced vocational counseling. The broad vocational choice has pretty well been made, and he may or may not have had specialized training in the area of his choice. If he is in a school of education he will have decided whether he wishes to be a secondary- or elementary-school teacher. His training will have been directed along the line of his choice, and the task of the placement office will be narrowed down to helping him to get located in an occupation for which he has been training.

On the other hand, if the student is a graduate of a liberal-arts college, his vocational choice will be less restricted. With the help of the vocational-guidance office he may have decided that he will go into teaching, into insurance selling, into work in an automobile factory, or into a hundred and one different kinds of vocations. By the time a school of nursing student is ready to graduate, her vocation has been decided, her training oriented accordingly, and placement is restricted to a narrow field. Many liberal-arts seniors, however, have taken no steps either in the matter of vocational choice or vocational training. The placement officer who is greeted by a liberal-arts student saying, "I want a job when I graduate," has probably a more difficult task on his hands than when he is greeted by a school of education senior saying, "Can you help to get me placed in the secondary field teaching mathematics?"

Obviously, the placement officer is very often the first vocational-guidance worker with whom the student has had contact. This may be of no particular consequence for the well-adjusted student, who is capable of making his own plans, and there are, happily, many such students. The time is getting late, however, for the liberal-arts senior who still has no idea what he wants to do, and is more confused occupationally than when he was a freshman, or for the school of education senior who decides that he is in the wrong field but doesn't know what the right field may be. The placement officer is not the occupational information specialist, nor is he a vocational counselor. If he has to perform all three functions he cannot be especially effective in any of them. This may not be the case, of

course, if he is responsible for a relatively few students and has followed them through their college careers. But in the average college or large university the placement officer cannot be burdened with the vocational tasks that should come prior to placement, if placement is to be at all effective.

An ineffective placement service can have a damaging effect not only on the students but on the institution as well, and it may be that sometimes a college's interest in placement is dictated more by self-interest than by interest in the welfare of the students. Successful placement means that the student can utilize to the full his personal assets and the education and training that he has experienced while in college. He will be a happy alumni member rather than a disgruntled graduate who tells people "whatever you do, don't go to Columbo College." Satisfied employers will seek more graduates and so widen the employment opportunities of the graduates. A good placement office will do much to attract students to the institution. For private institutions this is becoming increasingly important, as they come more and more to depend on the tuition that students bring to the college. It is equally important, however, for the state institution, which depends for its existence on state appropriations.

It is unjust, however, to place the blame for job dissatisfaction on the shoulders of the placement office, and this is what often happens. Many studies point out the fact that numerous college graduates are vocationally maladjusted, but whether they are vocationally misplaced is another question. Many of the students who fill in questionnaires indicating their lack of satisfaction with their present job situation are individuals who would probably be disturbed and dissatisfied in any sort of job situation. This does not mean, of course, that many people who are dissatisfied and unhappy with their present job situation do not have, basically, a vocational problem. It does mean that for many the term "maladjustment" would be more accurate than "vocational maladjustment." It would be just, however, to say that if a sizable proportion of our college graduates turn out to be disgruntled with their occupation, our total process of higher education has not contributed to society as it should.

Placement is often the major, and sometimes the only, vocational-guidance service that is offered in many colleges. This does not mean, however, that the placement office is held in high regard, supplied with a budget big enough to staff it in a satisfactory manner. As a matter of fact, in a fairly recent survey<sup>17</sup> of seventy colleges and universities in the United States with regard to the operation of placement offices, it was found that for the most part placement services were understaffed, and

<sup>17</sup> McCabe, Robert D., "Placement Office Survey," *School and College Placement*, 10:31-33, May, 1950.

placement officers had other duties that stole time from placement work and lowered the efficiency of the placement service. This survey also indicated that in schools with enrollments of 10,000 students or over, placement budgets, not including salaries, ranged from \$1,000 to \$25, with the average around \$500.

The placement office is concerned with more than the placement of the graduating student. Two other tasks that take up a good deal of the placement officer's time are part-time jobs for students who are in need of work to maintain themselves in college, and the placement of alumni who wish to change their position.

Students who are interested in part-time work usually fill in an information card indicating the sort of work they wish to do, the work experience they have had, and the times that they are available. A copy of a fairly typical card, used by the Boston University Placement Service, is shown in Appendix 16.

Some institutions separate the two tasks so that one placement officer will be concerned only with the placement of students in part-time work, while another will have as his major task the placement of alumni. Many colleges are able to supply a good deal of the staff for unskilled but necessary jobs on the campus by means of part-time student help. It is very seldom that anyone who dines in a campus eating spot will be served by other than students, while sometimes even the men or women who cook his food may be students. It is only reasonable that every college should canvass its own job possibilities, and that as great a proportion as possible of its working staff should be students. The placement officer should obviously be aware of the part-time opportunities available in the community as well as in his college. Part-time job opportunities are changing continually, and an excellent system of contacts must be built up if the part-time placement officer is to be aware of all the part-time opportunities available from year to year. In addition to helping students who are in financial need, the part-time placement officer is helpful in providing tryout experiences on the job to help students in their choice of future occupations. Actually, however, while the vast majority of part-time jobs acquaint the student with the world of work and help him in his total adjustment to people and to things, very few students will find their future occupation in dishwashing, running an elevator, serving as an information clerk, waiting on tables, or cutting grass. Some may end up with these tasks, of course, but few will plan them with much happiness. Our college culture is continually emphasizing the ennobling character of such experiences, but few who glorify them would want them for their full-time occupation. As a matter of fact, it is likely that most of those who speak about the nobility of digging a ditch have never had such an



experience themselves. College students all agree that ditches must be dug and that digging them is an honorable task, but they don't want to make that task a lifelong occupation.

Some schools provide aid in alumni placement if the individual requests help, others provide it as part of the total service, while others cease their placement tasks as soon as their seniors are placed. Successful placement of alumni members requires a high degree of cooperation between the alumni office and the placement office, since it is the former office that maintains contact with the alumni and keeps the alumni list up-to-date. Some placement offices periodically write graduates asking them for information to keep their file up-to-date, and they will put a graduate's file on the "active" list any time he so desires. He then gets the same service that is given to the graduating class. Sometimes the placement office will even take the lead, and notify some of its graduates if an interesting opening is available.

The organization of the placement office may vary from a highly centralized to a highly decentralized service, with some colleges having everything in between. A centralized bureau will have all of the institutional placement services housed under one roof. Such a bureau will usually be headed by a director, assisted by a staff of placement officers, the number depending on the size of the institution. The division of duties may be on a graduate, part-time, alumni, and teacher basis, or it may be on the basis of schools and colleges. That is, in the one placement office there may be one placement officer concerned only with the placement of graduates of the business school, another concerned only with graduates of the school of education, and so on. In another placement office there may be one officer concerned with the placement of all seniors, another with the placement of all students interested in part-time work, and so on. In either case, there is usually one officer who is concerned with the placement of teachers. One central record file is maintained, and employer contacts are made through the one central office. Sometimes the placement bureau will be located in the student counseling center, as at Boston University, or it may be housed apart from the counseling center, as at the State College of Washington. In the former situation, the record files maintained by the counseling office would be easily available for use by the placement officers, whereas, in the latter case, the placement office maintains its own set of records, contacting the counseling center occasionally, if it is in need of information about certain students. Obviously, the records that are maintained by the placement office will differ markedly from those maintained by the counseling center.

In many large urban universities, schools and colleges are scattered throughout the city, and the maintenance of a centralized placement office is impossible. In such a decentralized system, each school or college has its



own system of records, and each maintains its own system of contacts with those individuals who will likely employ their graduates, their alumni, and their part-time students. There is a good deal of overlapping in such a system, and there is less likelihood of an efficient and satisfactory service from the point of view of the employer. An employer is not always too specific as to the sort of graduate he wants for a certain position, but if there is a central bureau his request can be forwarded to the officer who would appear to be most likely to satisfy his demands. If, on the other hand, the employer has the choice of contacting several different schools, there is a good chance that he will contact one that cannot satisfy his demands, and referral to another school or college is more difficult. Similarly in the matter of part-time work, it is obvious that a centralized bureau can serve both students and employers far more efficiently than can numerous bureaus scattered all over the city.

Very often the placement service lies somewhere between the centralized and decentralized plan of organization. A good deal of individual placement goes on in all colleges, and often the informal sort of placement that occurs when faculty members and department heads recommend certain students is the major form of placement. This is particularly so in schools of education where so many of the faculty members, through their practice teaching contacts, have a close acquaintance with principals and superintendents. In some such schools the better graduates never even get to the placement bureau. Sometimes there may be placement offices in individual schools and colleges, as well as a central placement office. The central bureau may coordinate the placement services that are offered in the various colleges, and this use of a coordinating officer may overcome some of the objections of the strictly decentralized plan.

A placement office should exert every effort to create a situation that would encourage employers to seek the graduates of the institution. This attempt to offer the students the widest possible employment opportunities is, after all, the reason for the existence of the placement bureau. An aggressive alumni committee sometimes plays an important role in improving employment opportunities. Such committees frequently have their own local placement office, which helps graduates of their alma mater to locate positions in their own areas.

If the placement bureau is housed in the vocational-guidance office, it will have access to each student's central file, and in some cases this may be the only information file. However, just as the counselor may have his confidential information that he does not wish to place in a central file, so the placement officer will have information that is for placement purposes only. Every student applicant should have his registration card filed in the placement office with indications of occupational interests and professional field.

At Boston University a preliminary information card is filled out by all seniors during the registration period. A copy of this card is shown in Appendix 17.

The student's cumulative folder should contain several copies of complete and pertinent data that can be shown or forwarded to employers. If the placement officer is also the vocational counselor the student's record file will obviously contain much additional test information, information derived from counseling sessions, and information from various other sources already discussed. If he is not the vocational counselor, the majority of this information, other than the confidential material, should be easily available to him.

Equally important is the employer file in which will be listed the individuals and the institutions where the college graduates may find employment. This file should do more than name just the people and the places. It should give specific information regarding the type of employment offered, the requirements, the opportunities, and so on. Much of this, of course, will come from materials published by the employers, and employers will generally tend to indicate what is good about their employment and disregard what is bad. A copy of an employer information card used by Boston University is shown in Appendix 18.

The specific tasks of the placement officer will vary a great deal. If he works in a well-staffed and well-organized vocational-guidance office, his two major tasks will be the placement of the students and follow-up activities to aid the student and to evaluate the effectiveness of not only the placement services but the whole educational program of the institution. The senior student who comes to him is one who has already made use of the vocational-testing and vocational-counseling services, if he needed them. He has already made his vocational choice, and he has oriented his college program, at least to some extent, toward that choice. Let us say his college program has been affected by his occupational plans. He is now ready to enter into an occupation, and he wants the help of the placement officer in locating the best possible job. The placement officer will have an intimate knowledge of industry, occupations, and specific job requirements. He will have made use of local organizations, government agencies, educational institutions, business and industries, to expand job opportunities continually. He will tie this in with the capacities and the training of the student, and he will be able to give him the leads that may help the student to be placed in a job where there is some likelihood of occupational satisfaction. This placement officer will spend much of his time keeping his employer file up-to-date, maintaining contacts with employers, and making new contacts with potential employers. He will acquaint possible employers with the educational ex-

periences presented at his college, and keep up-to-date with regard to changing conditions in the field of work.

Brockman and Smith<sup>18</sup> think of placement as a process involving three phases. The first is the period of preparation in which information may be given, visits or contacts made with the employer, and the individual is conditioned for the next step, which involves placement. The second phase has to do with induction into the new situation. The third and final phase involves helping the worker to understand his job and to improve and move ahead in it.

If the placement officer is also the vocational counselor, then his duties will be multiplied to the point where it is questionable whether he can be effective in any one of them. In such a case he would see the student at a much earlier stage than the placement officer whose only concern is placement. Not too much can be done for the maladjusted senior, two months away from graduation, who wants the placement officer to place him in a job where he can earn a lot of money, get away with very little work, and be very happy.

In addition to these tasks the placement officer may have to take over the job of the teacher. He sometimes instructs the students in the matter of writing letters to employers, filling out placement questionnaires, and learning what to do and what to say when one comes into the employer's office for a job interview.

Some personnel workers feel that all of these tasks are the tasks of the placement officer. There is no doubt that in some institutions this is the case, but it is difficult to see how any human being can do a satisfactory job when he is burdened with a multitude of tasks that are correctly the business of half a dozen experts.

The follow-up program is an integral part of the work done by the placement office. The follow-up may be made by personal consultation or by means of some sort of inquiry form or letter. It is necessary to make contact with not only the graduate but also the employers of the graduate, since the adjustment of an individual to his work situation cannot be completely determined by hearing only his side of the question. If the placement service is to be effective, and, indeed, if the whole college curriculum is to remain alive, it is essential that there be some indication of the relationship of the life that the graduate of the institution is living to the training that he received. Through periodic checks, the placement office can keep up-to-date with occupations that are contracting and with those that are expanding, and with new opportunities

<sup>18</sup> Brockman, L. O., and Leo Smith, "Placement and Follow-up Services," in Clifford E. Erickson (ed.), *A Basic Text for Guidance Workers*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947, pp. 381-382.



that are continually appearing on the occupational horizon. Through the eyes of the graduate it can find out how effective the service is in actual placement and the mistakes that need to be remedied. Through the eyes of the employer it can find out how the institution's graduates are being received, and what the employer thinks of the training given to them. Any college should surely at least pause to consider the value of the continual offering of a course consistently condemned by employers as useless and a complete waste of time. If this feeling is echoed by the graduates, there should be little doubt as to the fate of the course under consideration. If a follow-up study indicates that a large proportion of the college graduates were not placed in the job for which they were trained, that many had difficulty in finding any kind of employment, and that many keep coming back for assistance in finding the second- and third- and fourth-choice occupation, then the college should look critically at its student body, at its guidance services, and at its whole curriculum.

Follow-up should not be just for an evaluation of the program and of the student. It is also an obvious means of helping the graduate to adjust to his new work situation, and sometimes to help him to try again. The best placement service will make its mistakes, and students will be placed in positions that they never should have been asked to accept. When follow-up indicates that the training has not been effective and that the graduate feels completely insecure in his work, the institution has some responsibility in helping the student and giving him another chance. It is a moot question, however, how long this process can go on. Even under the best of circumstances, in an institution where the vocational program is extremely effective, there will always be graduates who will be occupational misfits. Is the institution to be perpetually responsible for them?

Follow-up is the final phase of the total vocational-guidance program. There is an intimate relationship between the gathering and dissemination of vocational information, vocational guidance, vocational counseling, placement, and follow-up. Some personnel workers feel that all these phases should be handled by one person. There is no doubt that if one vocational-guidance worker is responsible, over a period of four years, for all the vocational-guidance services that are experienced by one student, there will be a close and understanding relationship between student and worker when the time for placement approaches. Even in a small institution, however, where the guidance worker would be responsible for a relatively few students, it is questionable if he could effectively master all the knowledge, skills, and techniques that would be needed to make the composite individual who could effectively handle all the tasks mentioned above. If three personnel workers were available to staff the vocational-guidance office, it would appear better to have one assume the



major responsibility for the gathering of vocational information and for general vocational guidance, another to assume the responsibility for vocational counseling, and the third to assume the responsibility for placement and follow-up. There is, of course, no hard and fast line between these three major tasks, but this plan would appear to be more effective than to expect to have each worker assume the responsibility for all of the vocational services to be experienced by each student.

## CHAPTER 6 *Counseling*

Counseling, like other personnel services, has not yet reached the stage of research respectability, although there is probably more published and unpublished literature of a research nature in the field of counseling than in any other personnel area. More than in any other personnel service, however, counseling is the one in which the personality of the personnel worker plays a major role. The attitude and the philosophy of the surgeon may have little effect on the efficiency with which he removes a ruptured appendix, and it may also have very little effect on the eventual recovery or death of the patient. The attitude and the philosophy of the counselor, however, are all important, and in any research it is difficult to keep such an inconsistent factor consistent. A counselor who feels that client-centered procedures are ridiculous may verbally follow a client-centered technique to the letter, but his insincerity can hardly escape the client. One may have a good deal of background in analysis and diagnosis, but if one really feels that such procedures are dangerous and liable to injure the client he cannot be very effective. A counselor can outwardly accept all the negative statements of a client, but his inward rebellion will have its effect on the counseling situation.

Until around 1940 there was little debate or discussion as to a definition of counseling. It was fairly generally accepted as the giving of counsel, and the general concept of the counselor was an individual who talked to a person, found out something about his difficulties, and advised him what to do. There was little that dealt with counseling in the literature, and what little there was appeared to accept the lay definition of counseling as indicated above. The three major contributors to the literature on counseling in the decade preceding 1940 were Bingham, Strang, and Williamson.<sup>1</sup> Williamson's text, appearing at the end of the decade, was ac-

<sup>1</sup> Bingham, Walter Van Dyke, *How to Interview*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1931; Strang, Ruth, *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937; Williamson, E. G., *How to Counsel Students*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939.

cepted as a classic text for counselors and so it remained for several years. The real counseling debate began with the publication of Carl Rogers's *Counseling and Psychotherapy*<sup>2</sup> in 1942. It was a healthy, though violent, debate, which awakened counselors from their acceptance of techniques and methods that had little valid evidence to indicate the results of their use. The nondirective counselors presented a strong attack on the traditional concepts that had been accepted by counselors, and in replying to this attack the "non-nondirectivists" found it necessary to become more critical of methods and procedures that had hitherto been accepted without question. The result has been a tremendous increase in interest in the field of counseling and a much greater concern with methods, techniques, and philosophy. In the ten years since the publication of Rogers's book numerous texts on counseling have appeared, and most of them have appeared in the last two years. Although the pendulum has been pushed back from the extreme position where a few of Rogers's disciples wished to place it, and although there is general agreement among counselors as to objectives, there is still little agreement on a definition of the process of counseling and the methods to be used in the counseling process. While many counselors may be "in between" or eclectic in their discussion and in their writings about counseling, there is very often more than a subtle difference in the actual procedures that are used in the counseling process. Differences are to be noticed, for example, in the recent writings of such individuals as Williamson, Erickson, Wrenn, Thorne, and Hahn and MacLean,<sup>3</sup> as compared with Rogers, Snyder, Porter and the author.<sup>4</sup> Differences there are, although it is not always easy to determine which differences are real, and which are simply a matter of semantics.

### THE TERMINOLOGY OF COUNSELING

In his *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, Rogers<sup>5</sup> implied that counseling was psychotherapy, and that client-centered counseling and nondirective

<sup>2</sup> Rogers, Carl R., *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942.

<sup>3</sup> Williamson, E. G., *Counseling Adolescents*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950; Erickson, Clifford, *The Counseling Interview*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950; Wrenn, C. Gilbert, *Student Personnel Work in Colleges*, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951; Thorne, Frederick, *Principles of Personality Counseling*, Brandon, Vt.: Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1950; Hahn, Milton E., and Malcolm S. MacLean, *General Clinical Counseling*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950.

<sup>4</sup> Rogers, Carl R., *Client-Centered Therapy*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951; Snyder, William V., *A Case Book in Non-directive Counseling*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947; Porter, E. H., *An Introduction to Therapeutic Counseling*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1950; Arbuckle, Dugald S., *Teacher Counseling*, Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Press, 1950.

<sup>5</sup> Rogers, Carl R., *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942.

counseling were synonymous terms. In recent years every writer in the field of counseling makes it quite clear that the counseling he is advocating is client-centered counseling. There is general agreement that all good counseling is client centered, but this harmony does not extend to a definition of what is meant by client centered. Some counselors, for example, will say that they feel quite free to give advice to clients, but, since this advice is obviously for the good of the client, there is no contradiction of the principles of client-centered counseling. Some will make similar statements with regard to such procedures as reassurance and interpretation. Other counselors will say that it is impossible to be client centered and to give advice or reassurance, or to interpret for the client.

"Nondirective" is another term that is gradually being dropped by the way. It is interesting to note that, in the index of Rogers's new book, *Client-Centered Therapy*,<sup>6</sup> the notation that comes after the term "nondirective counseling" is "See Client-Centered Psychotherapy." It is unfortunate that the term nondirective was first used to describe what Rogers now calls client-centered psychotherapy, since it did give to many individuals the erroneous conception of a supine and passive form of counseling, where the counselor withdrew completely from any contact with the client. Hahn and MacLean<sup>7</sup> simplify matters in their recent book by the use of the term "Rogerianism," but this can hardly be considered as a happy solution since it is nondescriptive, and it carries with it the implication of a complete acceptance of the theories of one man. Rogers would probably be the first to decry such an acceptance.

Eclecticism has come to be accepted by many as the word that describes a counseling process that uses a variety of methods and techniques to deal with the variety of problems faced by the client. Many counselors feel that the only reasonable attitude is to accept a counseling methodology that is as varied as the clients with whom the counselor works. Blum and Balinsky<sup>8</sup> use the term "nonauthoritarian" to describe the eclectic approach. They state that the term nonauthoritarian is used to encompass those techniques which are neither authoritarian nor are strictly nondirective.

It is quite apparent that the early debate which raged over the techniques and methods that should be used in counseling was very much a case of semantic misunderstanding. The basic division was between those who thought of counseling as an all-inclusive affair practically synonymous with guidance, and those who considered counseling to be the narrower

<sup>6</sup> Rogers, Carl R., *Client-Centered Therapy*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952.

<sup>7</sup> Hahn and MacLean, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

<sup>8</sup> Blum, Milton L., and Benjamin Balinsky, *Counseling and Psychology*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951, p. 106.



process of psychotherapy. Typical of the more omnibus type of definition is that of Mathewson:<sup>9</sup>

... counseling may be thought of as any mode of professional aid extended to the individual through verbal educative means by which the individual is enabled to make improvised adjustments and to pursue his individual development more effectively.

Williamson's<sup>10</sup> definition is similarly all-inclusive:

Counseling has been defined as a face-to-face situation in which, by reason of training, skill or confidence vested in him by the other, one person helps the second person to face, perceive, clarify, solve, and resolve adjustment problems . . . it . . . includes all efforts on the part of both counselor and client to face, clarify and solve problems. In short, then, counseling is a process which aids an individual to progress in personality growth and integration.

Wrenn<sup>11</sup> also uses an all-encompassing definition for counseling:

Counseling is a dynamic and purposeful relationship between two people in which procedures vary with the nature of the student's need but in which there is always mutual participation by counselor and student with the focus upon self-clarification and self-determination by the student.

There is some disagreement to be noted among those who hold to the omnibus type of definition on the question of the relationship of the interview and the counseling process. On this question, Blum and Balinsky<sup>12</sup> write: "the interview, the most important technique in counseling . . . Three interviewing techniques are discussed and evaluated: the authoritarian, the non-directive and the non-authoritarian."

Erickson,<sup>13</sup> however, thinks of counseling as one form of interviewing. He refers to the employment interview, the informational interview, the disciplinary or administrative interview, and the counseling interview. The counseling interview he describes as a person-to-person relationship in which one individual with problems and needs turns to another person for assistance.

Among those who accept an all-inclusive definition of counseling there are further contradictory limitations. Rothney and Roens,<sup>14</sup> for example, in discussing the duties of counselors, write:

<sup>9</sup> Mathewson, Robert Hendry, *Guidance Policy and Practice*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949, p. 208.

<sup>10</sup> Williamson, E. G., and J. D. Foley, *Counseling and Discipline*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949, p. 192.

<sup>11</sup> Wrenn, *op. cit.*, p. 60.

<sup>12</sup> Blum and Balinsky, *op. cit.*, p. ix.

<sup>13</sup> Erickson, *op. cit.*, pp. 4-5.

<sup>14</sup> Rothney, John W., and Bert A. Roens, *Counseling the Individual Student*, New York: William Sloane Associates, 1949, pp. 9-10.

The primary duty of such counselors will be the collecting, collating and interpreting data about, and to the individual. Primary emphasis will be placed upon collecting and collating data so that interpretations made by counselors may be based upon valid information. The actual counseling processes which follow, however. . . .

Thus counseling apparently would not include such a procedure as test interpretation. A similar limitation is mentioned by Super. In referring to the techniques of vocational counseling he differentiates between diagnosis and counseling: <sup>15</sup> "In many cases these techniques fall naturally into two categories: those of diagnosis and those of treatment or counseling in the more limited sense."

Butler <sup>16</sup> has made a logical separation of the counseling process which is defined in terms of the total adjustment of the individual:

. . . the counseling process is discerned as having two phases which have been called the "adjustive" and the "distributive." In the adjustive phase the emphasis is on the social, personal and emotional problems of the client; in the distributive phase the focus is upon his vocational, occupational and educational problems. . . . The distributive phase of counseling should not be entered until the growth processes inherent in the client result in independent and mature judgments and readiness to choose new goals and abandon old ones.

The author would consider Butler's "distributive" phase to be more aptly described as guidance, while the "adjustive" phase would be a description of the actual counseling process.

The general semantic confusion in the field of counseling is evident in even these few samples of opinions as to the meaning of counseling. Definite areas of agreement are to be noted, as well as areas of disagreement. There would seem to be general agreement that:

1. Counseling has to do with the interaction between two people. There is no such thing as group counseling, whether it be with a group of three or more people or with three or more individuals who happen to be together at the same time.

2. The basic objective of counseling is to help the individual to become independent and capable of functioning on his own. Self-determination and self-clarification will be possible only when personal insight has been achieved.

3. Counseling is a professional task for professionally trained people.

<sup>15</sup> Super, Donald E., *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949, p. 2.

<sup>16</sup> Butler, John M., "On the Role of Directive and Non-directive Techniques in the Counseling Process," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 8:208, Summer, 1948.

Ross,<sup>17</sup> in a doctorate study at New York University, has pointed out the following Freudian concepts that are basic to all counseling:

1. Recognition of a state of conflict
2. Acknowledgment of the unconscious
3. The role of repression
4. Dependence and transference
5. The acquiring of insight
6. Emphasis on corrective emotional experience
7. The objective and accepting attitude of the therapist

There is marked disagreement, however, on the following issues:

1. *The extent of the counseling process.* The omnibus type of definitions, such as those of Williamson and Erickson mentioned above, would mean that, in almost any situation where one person helps another, counseling would have taken place. The everyday situation where students come into the counselor's office and ask questions about directions, rooms, books, and so on would result in counseling. The helpful gardener who gives a few hints to his troubled neighbor would be counseling, as would the policeman who directs the worried motorist on his way. This would not be professional help, but it would appear to fit in with the above definitions of counseling. On the other hand, those counselors who might generally be classified as nondirective in their orientation would think of most of this as guidance, with counseling being considered in terms of psychotherapy.

2. *The extent to which diagnosis is to be considered an integral part of the total counseling process.* There would seem to be an increasing belief that counseling should be regarded as treatment while diagnosis may or may not be a prerequisite for counseling. It may be noticed in the above definitions that Williamson, Super, and Rothney and Roens consider diagnosis as being something apart from counseling. There is also disagreement as to whether or not diagnosis must be a prerequisite to the counseling process. Again, we usually find that the nondirectively oriented counselors feel that diagnosis is not necessary for effective counseling, and might even have a negative effect, while others feel that although diagnosis might not be a part of the counseling process it is essential if counseling is to be at all effective.

3. *The role of the counselor.* The extent of counselor domination can only be determined by observing the counselor in action, but even in the definitions it is obvious that some counselors feel that the role of the counselor is much more dominant than do others. All will probably agree that

<sup>17</sup> Ross, Josephine H., *A Study of Three Common Fundamental Factors in the Development of Psychological Counseling in the United States*, New York: New York University, 1949, pp. 144-145.

the counselor does not withdraw completely and allow the client to do and say what he will without any sort of counselor participation, nor does he completely dominate and direct the entire thinking of the client. These extremes are avoided, but some counselors are definitely more dominant in the counseling process than are others. This again depends to a great extent on the personality and philosophy of the counselor. One must *feel* even more than one must *know* the capacity and strengths of the client if the client is to play the dominant role in the counseling process. The counselor who sincerely believes that the client is in a relative state of helplessness will almost certainly be more dominant than the counselor who believes that, despite the client's apparently confused and disturbed state, he is still capable of solving his own difficulties.

4. *The extent to which the counseling process is in the realm of the intellectual or the emotional.* The greater part of the casual advising and the giving of information is based on the premise that the individual is rational and stable enough to make use of the information and advice. There is also, of course, the implied assumption that the information and advice offered is good for the client. Those who think of counseling in the broader sense appear to feel that a great deal of counseling is in the intellectual realm. Much of the counseling process would appear to be an intellectual discussion directed with a purpose by the counselor. On the other hand, those counselors who think of counseling and psychotherapy as being synonymous feel that counseling deals basically with the emotions and that the whole purpose of counseling is to help the client to ventilate his emotions so that he may eventually become rational enough to be able to use information and advice good for him, and cast aside that which is of no value.

5. *The relationship of the interview to the counseling process.* Some counselors apparently feel that the interview is the most important part of the counseling process, while others think that counseling is one form of the interview.

As the student who is training to be a counselor reads the different books and periodicals dealing with counseling and listens to the various instructors, he may sometimes feel that he is with Alice in Wonderland. If he happens to be a somewhat passive individual he will find it difficult to say, "I agree," since someone will immediately ask with what and with whom he agrees. The counselor must avoid the error of allying himself with some "school" and from that point on closing his ears and eyes to all those who are not accepted by his school. But if he is human, he must surely gradually come to feel and believe that there are methods and techniques, as well as beliefs, that are better than other methods and techniques and beliefs. For the ideas of those who cannot agree with him professionally on certain issues he may have complete respect, and his own



ideas will never be so rigid that they cannot change. But he cannot possibly sit on the fence. Each counselor must eventually come to have his own professional frame of reference, and it is probably just as well for the future of counseling that that frame of reference will differ sharply from that of some of his colleagues. As long as there is this difference growth in the understanding of the process of counseling is certain.

If counseling is to be considered as a professional task, the beliefs of the counselor should obviously be based on more than faith. If he has nothing in the way of empirical evidence to back up some of his ideas, we might well question the professional status of counseling. The greater part of the evidence as yet is rather inconclusive, but, nevertheless, there is an increasing accumulation of evidence that will almost certainly cause modifications in the thinking of all counselors. The emphasis on self-determination is not just a whim, nor is the attempt of the counselor to understand and follow the feelings of the client, to avoid a critical or moralizing attitude, to listen rather than to just talk, to understand the role that his own feelings play in the counseling process. Despite the increasing amount of evidence, however, it is obvious that the counselor's frame of reference will continue to be strongly affected by his own intellectual and emotional experiences.

The author was probably formulating a counseling attitude long before he had heard of the term counseling or of any of the names now associated with counseling in the United States. Every year of teaching made it more apparent that the learning process was a "self" process. It became increasingly evident that learning was a personal business, and that the teacher could not learn for the student. This was an obvious truth, of course, but when it was learned through experience rather than from a psychology instructor, it had a much more marked effect. As a teacher, the author slowly learned that the more he withdrew from the teaching process, and the more he emphasized the learning process, the more everyone, including the teacher, learned. Teaching, then, gradually became a process in which the teacher helped the student to help himself, and so to learn and to change. Every year of teaching strengthened the author's belief that one of his most grievous mistakes had been his underestimation of the capacities and the strengths of his students. Month after month, and year after year, they offered him dramatic proof of what they could do if he would exert himself to create the sort of situation, the climate, the atmosphere where learning could take place. A basic aspect of the teaching process became the creation of a climate so that self-growth was possible. Another feeling that gradually evolved was that this self-determination and self-growth was possible in both the intellectual and the emotional areas. The author found that he could depend on the students to work out, fairly consistently, both their intellectual and their emotional

difficulties by themselves if the learning climate was created, and as long as the difficulty was not something that was beyond them for a variety of reasons such as intelligence, pressure from the home, and so on.

Counseling, then, is viewed in this book as an interaction between two people that enables the disturbed individual to come to the point where he can make choices and decisions that are rational and logical; it is an interaction that is basically verbal, and is emotional in nature; it is an interaction that enables the individual to accept and to use information and advice, and to accept an unchangeable environment without being overcome by it. The complexity of the emotional disturbance requiring counseling must be such that it can be relieved only by the development of greater insight on the part of the client, and this insight is the result of the interaction between the counselor and the client.

It is interesting to note that Rogers's<sup>18</sup> most recent definition of counseling emphasizes his theory of personality. He refers to therapy as "the process by which the structure of the self is relaxed in the safety of the relationship with the therapist, and previously denied experiences are perceived and then integrated into an altered self."

The stable individual is one who can find a satisfactory solution to his problems, rather than one who has no problems. In many situations the problem may be solved in a completely rational manner by the receiving of information or advice. Sometimes it may be solved by environmental manipulation, and quite frequently environmental manipulation and counseling must go hand in hand.

## THE GENERAL COLLEGE COUNSELOR<sup>19</sup>

Practically every member of a college faculty, or at least everyone who has any sort of a positive relationship with the students, will at some time be involved in the counseling process. The relationship between teacher and student may traditionally be an intellectual one, but a warm and understanding individual, whether he be teacher, administrator, or counselor, will almost certainly develop some sort of emotional relationship.

The term "general counselor" used in this section refers to all college personnel who may sometimes be placed in a situation where they must function as a counselor, although their basic task may not be counseling. The majority of these individuals are either teachers or administrators. Such people are not professionally trained counselors or therapists, but periodically they must perform the functions of a counselor if the student is to be given the assistance he needs.

<sup>18</sup> Rogers, Carl R., "Client-Centered Psychotherapy," *Scientific American*, 187:70, November, 1952.

<sup>19</sup> Arbuckle, Dugald S., "The General Counselor: Must He Be Eclectic?" *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 15:76-78, February, 1951.

Nearly all faculty members function as faculty advisers for a varying number of students. The relationship between faculty member and student should very often be the relationship between counselor and client. Faculty advising is an essential part of the counseling services offered in any institution. If at all possible, only those faculty members who wish to act as advisers should be allowed to do so. A faculty member acting as an unwilling adviser may do more harm than good. Even those faculty members who are interested, however, frequently have little understanding or skill, and an in-service training program is essential. In describing the creation of an effective faculty-adviser training program at Kansas State College, Gordon <sup>20</sup> concludes by saying:

We feel that the use of the knowledge of small group dynamics in creating and operating a large-scale training program for advisers is practical and successful, and that it can be applied effectively in other institutions. We believe such a program rests upon the extension of the application of personnel techniques by the counselor to the faculty. If the counselor respects his faculty colleagues, works with them in a democratic fashion, and attempts to meet their needs, he can secure faculty cooperation and participation in advising and training.

At New York University all teachers in the guidance department are provided with a form that may be used to record any information on any student that may be of value to the Guidance Office. This, in some way, at least gives the faculty adviser the feeling that he does play an important part in the guidance of the student. A copy of this form may be seen in Appendix 19.

At the Boston University School of Education each faculty adviser receives, early in the first semester, a list of his advisees. After each advisee's name there may be one or more of a series of symbols, each with a particular meaning. Thus an "I" means the student has indicated inadequate study habits, a "P" means that he is on probation, and so on. Thus, while the personnel office betrays no confidences, it does give each faculty member a better understanding of his advisees, so that he can work more effectively with them. A copy of one of these advisee lists is shown in Appendix 20. This assumes, of course, that each faculty member is personnel-minded and personnel-trained. If this is not so, there is an obvious danger that some of this information might be misused.

If these college workers are oriented to the client-centered point of view, they will understand the futility of playing an intellectual role in what is often obviously an emotional situation. They will also find it extremely difficult to accept eclecticism as a method of counseling. The general counselor will be faced with a great diversity of problems, and,

<sup>20</sup> Gordon, Ira J., "The Creation of an Effective Faculty Adviser Training Program through Group Procedure," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 10:512, Autumn, 1950.



while he is acutely aware of his own limitations, he may feel that eclecticism is a challenge to his integrity. The "client-centeredness" of the client-centered counselor is more than a method or technique. It is a very basic part of his entire philosophy. His belief and his faith in the capacity of his fellow man to solve his own problems is not something that can be put on or off like a coat. It is almost impossible, for example, for the client-centered counselor who is striving to see the client as he sees himself to turn around and be the diagnostician who is not going along with the client, but rather is trying to find the meanings behind the client's statements and the causes of his difficulties.

When counseling is viewed as an all-inclusive affair practically synonymous with guidance, it is difficult to see how the general counselor could be anything but eclectic. There might be some question as to how client-centered one could be in answering a perfectly logical question, "Is English 178 being held in Room 76 or Room 211?" If counseling is viewed in terms of therapy, however, this whole question of eclecticism often becomes a question of philosophy rather than one of methodology.

Eclecticism assumes that the techniques and skills and understanding of the counselor have reached such a high stage of proficiency that he can use a variety of methods as he sees fit. It assumes that one can be an analyst at one moment, probing and interpreting, then almost immediately fall into the role of the permissive and acceptant client-centered counselor, and then with equal facility take over the role of the psychometrist. It may be that one person can acquire all the skill and understanding necessary to make him proficient in all these tasks, but it is questionable that the majority of the people who use eclectic methods are so skilled. Eclecticism also assumes that the personality of the counselor is such that he can, without any personal distress, move from one role to the other. And, finally, eclecticism assumes that the client can accept this changing role of the counselor without any negative effects.

The general counselor in a college is one who is most interested in the question of eclecticism, since he is the individual whose clients bring in a multiplicity of problems ranging from the very simple to the extremely complex. For such a counselor the road of eclecticism may often be the easy way out. The counselor who has neither the philosophy nor the training to be an effective client-centered counselor may be trying a nondirective approach, but at the first sign of any difficulty he will probably swing into a more directive role. This may be because he sincerely feels that this is now the best approach, or it may be because it is the only thing that he can do. A counselor who believes that a good deal of direction, probing, and interpretation is necessary may become frightened by the client's reaction and withdraw into a less directive role.



The general counselor very often has no indication of the depth of the client's problem. Even in those cases where he has some evidence that the student coming in to talk to him is a disturbed individual, this is no indication that what the student wants, and what he needs, is counseling. A disturbed student may want an intellectual answer to the question, "Is there part-time work available for me?" just as much as does the perfectly stable individual. While the clinical counselor may be fairly safe in assuming that most of his clients are in need of counseling and want counseling, the general counselor will spend more of his time in activities that are helpful to the student, but are definitely not counseling. Many of the students who come in to see him will be quite capable of making use of intellectual information and, to a lesser extent, advice. Many others may have their problem solved by a slight environmental change and will need no other aid in making decisions and choices.

The general counselor with the client-centered frame of reference would hardly be client centered if he could accept a different point of view from another counselor without any personal distress. He has respect and understanding for his fellow workers who do not see eye to eye with him, but it is unlikely that he will be very happy about following an eclectic course in counseling since this will run counter to his personal philosophy. It will necessitate the use of techniques that he does not feel equipped or trained to use even if he did *believe* that they represented the best approach.

The following cases are some examples of the client-centered general counselor in action. If we accept the narrower concept of counseling as given in this book, some of these problems are solved without counseling, and in no case is the counselor being eclectic. In other situations, however, it is a case of emotional stress, and the problem can only be solved by the interactive process between counselor and client. In such cases the counselor must make his choice. He can follow one method because he feels it is the most effective procedure, he can refer the client to another counselor because he feels the most effective method may be one which he cannot use, or he can become eclectic like a Jack-of-all-trades.

1. Mary Johnson comes into the office and indicates her despair over her lack of financial resources. She has no money, and she cannot earn enough to pay her tuition for the next semester. The counselor soon finds out that she has not made use of an available scholarship, and he makes an appointment with the office in charge of scholarships. By the afternoon Mary has the scholarship, and, as far as can be determined by periodic contacts with Mary, the problem is solved. She appears to be happy, she gets along well with her fellow students and teachers, and she does good academic work. The problem occurred here because of lack of knowledge.

The counselor supplied it, and the problem was solved. The girl was under emotional stress because of lack of knowledge, but when the knowledge was supplied she made use of it and solved her problem.

2. Bill Gregory tells the counselor that he wishes to change his major field of study from secondary-school mathematics to elementary education. The counselor reflects the general question, and Bill talks easily, giving excellent intellectual reasons why he wishes to change his major. The counselor cannot be sure, but he feels that Bill wants intellectual information and that he can use it. He gives him the desired information and checks the university bulletin with him. Bill is accepted in the elementary-education field, and, as far as can be determined, he does a good job.

3. Joe Earl comes into the counselor's office in an obviously angry mood. He denounces a professor, says he is sick to death of him, and he can't stand him another day. He has just got to change his major field of study or drop out of the university. In this obvious counseling situation the counselor reflects the negative attitudes, and at the end of half an hour Joe is no longer talking about the faculty member but is referring to a variety of other difficulties in a negative and hostile manner. At the end of the hour another appointment is made, and Joe returns later for further counseling.

4. A faculty member tells the counselor that Joe Martin does not participate in any class discussions and that he appears very withdrawn. He says that he has suggested to Joe that he drop in to see the counselor. Several weeks pass without any sign of Joe. The counselor's assistant telephones Joe and in an informal way asks him if he would care to come in and talk to the counselor about his general progress in the school. Joe indicates that he will, and an appointment is made. He does not keep the appointment. Further consultation with faculty members indicates that he needs immediate attention. The counselor finally gets him into the office, but his verbalization is limited to a weak "yes" or "no." Referral is made to one of the university psychiatrists.

5. Betty Ross comes into the counselor's office with a slightly belligerent attitude because of what she feels to be unfair treatment. She has recently been told of a speech requirement for graduation, and, since she is now a senior, she feels that it is very unfair that her graduation should be held up because of this new requirement. The counselor realizes that this is a case of misunderstanding, since the new regulation was to apply only to new students. He checks with the chairman of the committee in charge of such affairs, and Betty leaves the office relieved of what she thought was an extra burden. Her tension and distress were because of a misunderstanding. When this was corrected, the problem was solved.

6. Susan Brown comes into the counselor's office and starts to talk, on

an intellectual plane, about her below-average grades. The counselor knows that Susan is intellectually superior to most of her peer group, and he also knows from previous conversations that she has a very unhappy home situation. He uses a nondirective approach, and Susan soon veers around to her basic problem and talks rather bitterly about the injustice of her home situation. Before the hour is up, however, she has shown some signs of insight into her situation, and she asks the counselor for another appointment.

7. Harold Dean strides into the counselor's office and tells him that he is sick of being pushed around by the school, and he is completely confused and hasn't the faintest idea of what he wants to do in the future. The counselor attempts to use a nondirective approach, but Harold belligerently tells him that what he wants now is advice on what he should do, and if he doesn't get that advice he'll go elsewhere. The counselor structures his general position, but the client rejects this completely and again indicates that what he wants is advice on what he should do. The counselor tells Harold that another counselor could probably be of more assistance, and a telephone appointment is made the same day with another counselor.

8. Mary Saul asks the counselor for some advice with regard to her sister. As Mary talks the counselor begins to feel that she is talking about herself, but the conversation continues on an intellectual, third-person basis. The counselor gives the desired information but tries to make it such that, if Mary is talking about herself, she will be able to make use of the information. He also leaves the door open, so that Mary will feel free to return and talk further with the counselor about her "sister."

9. Jane Dodds comes in to talk to the counselor, who is also her teacher. She shows marked hostility toward the counselor and indicates that she feels he has treated her unfairly in the matter of a grade. The counselor accepts her negative feeling, and, after half an hour of a "letting-out" period, Jane says that she probably did not do so well after all as she had thought at first, and she asks the counselor to tell her just where she stood with regard to assignments and the final examination. The counselor gives her the desired information. She appears to accept it, and, as she goes out of the counselor's office, she says, "I guess I really knew that I wasn't so hot, but I didn't want to admit it to myself."

From the viewpoint of the general counselor who leans toward the nondirective point of view, the following would appear to be worthy of some consideration as principles of action:

1. In an obviously intellectual situation the counselor will give the desired information. He will differentiate clearly between information and advice.

2. In many circumstances the solution of a problem will depend upon



environmental manipulation, and the counselor will do what he can to see that this is carried out. Very often the solution of the problem will require both environmental manipulation and counseling.

3. In any situation where there is the slightest notion in the counselor's mind that there is an emotional difficulty behind the intellectual approach, he will reflect the general expressed problem and, on certain occasions, make use of intellectual sawdust to continue the conversation. That is, the conversation will be on an intellectual level, but it will be on a strictly neutral basis and will not particularly direct the client one way or another. The client may then go into deeper emotional areas, and the nondirective approach may be used effectively. On the other hand, the counselor may have to structure his general position, and if the client does not wish to accept the counselor's position he will be referred to someone else. From the counselor's point of view, this referral will be a matter of ethics rather than of bias. He simply feels that he is ineffective in a more directive role, and it may be that it is contrary to his personal philosophy.

4. When a student is referred rather forcibly to the counselor, a neutral intellectual discussion or a sharing of experience may be necessary in order to establish rapport. It may be that rapport cannot be established, and referral will be necessary. If rapport is established, it might then be followed by the offering of information, by assistance in the changing of the environment, by counseling, or by referral.

5. The counselor will do his utmost to aid the student in his struggle for self-understanding, but in the matter of diagnosis and prognosis he is keenly aware of his own inadequacy. Referral, however, is often impossible. There is simply no one to whom the client can be referred. If this is the case, if the counselor represents the client's last hope in the way of professional assistance, should he, despite his awareness of his own inadequacy, advise the client as best he can? This is a serious question, and it cannot be answered lightly. The basic and unanswered question probably is: How can we put to most effective use the thirty minutes that we have with troubled John Todd?

## THE PHILOSOPHY OF CLIENT-CENTERED COUNSELING

It is difficult to look in an objectively critical manner at the methodology and the philosophy of counseling, since most personnel workers, like all other human beings, have their own frame of reference fairly well set. Thus, when one individual reads an article or a book dealing with counseling, his interpretation may be quite different from that of another person reading exactly the same material. Keeping this weakness in mind, the major difference that would appear to stand out in studying the voluminous mass of material now available in the field of counseling is the



extent to which different counselors attempt to accept and to understand the feelings of the client. This is a good deal more than an understanding in a diagnostic sort of way. It is an empathic understanding rather than a diagnostic understanding. In reading some of the literature on counseling one gets the feeling of the counselor standing apart from the client trying to determine his ills, while in the client-centered literature one can almost begin to feel with the client. There is more of the essence of humility apparent in the client-centered literature than in some of the more diagnostic and directive writings. There would also appear to be a greater emphasis on the need for the counselor to understand himself as well as to understand the client.

The client-centered counselor shows his understanding and his acceptance at a surface level by his opening comments. When a student drops into the office and says, "Boy, I sure am all confused in this damn place," the counselor does not have to think about what he should say. His response, which may be, "You're sort of upset," is a part of him just as the initial probing response of another counselor, "Why are you so upset?" might be indicative of his personality rather than of his counseling technique. Similarly, a client-centered counselor's response, "You mean that you feel that it is very important to your philosophy of living that you go out with this fellow, and yet, on the other hand, you respect your parents and cannot see yourself doing something that might hurt them," is not forced or artificial, but is a part of him because it is a part of his feeling. There is an important differentiation between a response in the mind of the counselor, the correct professional response, and the response that is completely normal because it mirrors the counselor's own feeling. It may be a learned response, but it also is a reflection of his total personality.

It is probably incorrect to say that this is an attempt to get at the inner frame of reference, since the experienced client-centered counselor does not have to force himself away from the external frame of reference to the internal frame of reference. The following of the feelings of the client, and the understanding and acceptance of the client point of view, becomes a part of the pattern of the personality of the counselor. The counselor comes to be a person who does not say to himself, "I wonder if that fellow is contemplating leaving his job" or "My, that is a rather narrow point of view" or "I think that you are just kidding yourself on that" or "Well, after all, you did get what you asked for" or "My, this girl is certainly in need of treatment." Rather he feels with the client, and his feelings, to a degree, are the feelings of the client. Instead of *thinking* as above, he will come closer to *feeling*, "You feel that you've taken just about all that you can take on that job" or "These people all seem to be against you" or "You do think that maybe that is something that you can do" or "His treatment of you is something that you just can't quite understand" or "You feel that things

have got to a point where you just have to do something pretty drastic."

Rogers<sup>21</sup> illustrates this basic trait of the client-centered counselor by quoting a client and then suggesting the sort of thoughts that would indicate the external frame of reference:

I wonder if I should help him get started talking?

Is this inability to get under way a type of dependence?

Why this indecisiveness? What could be its cause?

What is meant by this focus on marriage and family?

He seems to be a bachelor. I hadn't known that.

The crying, the "damn," sound as though there must be a great deal of repression.

He's a veteran. Could he have been a psychiatric case?

I feel sorry for anybody who spent four and one-half years in the service.

Some time he will probably need to dig into those early unhappy experiences.

What is this interest in children? Identification? Vague homosexuality?

The counselor who is capable of assuming the internal frame of reference would tend to feel like this:<sup>22</sup>

You're wanting to struggle toward normality, aren't you?

It's really hard for you to get started.

Decision making just seems impossible to you.

You want marriage, but it doesn't seem to you to be much of a possibility.

You feel yourself brimming over with childish feelings.

To you the Army represented stagnation.

Being very nice to children has somehow had meaning for you.

But it was—and is—a disturbing experience for you.

In the first example the counselor *thinks about* the client. In the second, he *feels with* the client. This going along with the feeling of the client is to be detected in almost any level of a client-centered counseling session, whether it be very light or very serious. Let us take a fairly ordinary situation, where Joe Dell, a college sophomore, drops in to see the counselor in a small college. The counselor knows Joe slightly, and what records that are available tend to indicate that there is nothing unusual about him. He gets average grades, and he does pretty much the same things as his fellow students. Let us note the reactions and the responses of two different counselors, Mrs. Brown and Mr. Smith.

STUDENT: Could I . . . uh . . . could I . . . uhm . . . well . . . could I talk to you for a moment, please?

BROWN'S REACTION: This boy is flushed, breathing heavily, and obviously upset. He must be under some stress. I wonder what is the matter. I'll have to watch this. It could be a serious case. Referral may be necessary.

<sup>21</sup> Rogers, Carl R., *Client-Centered Therapy*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941, p. 33.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 34.

BROWN'S RESPONSE: Of course, Joe. What can I do for you?

SMITH'S REACTION: You're sort of upset and you'd like to talk to somebody for a while.

SMITH'S RESPONSE: Of course, Joe. Come on in and have a chair over here.

STUDENT: Well, Mr. Smith (Mrs. Brown), it's this way . . . it's . . . oh heck, I suppose it's something that I shouldn't go talking about anyway. I shouldn't even have come down here in the first place.

BROWN'S REACTION: Now what can it be that he doesn't want to talk about? He obviously feels that he has gone too far. It will probably be quite a job to get him talking again. I must see what I can do about that.

BROWN'S RESPONSE: Don't you worry about that. Why did you come down?

SMITH'S REACTION: Now that you've got down here it gets a bit difficult to talk about it. Right now you feel that you'd like to back out of it if you could.

SMITH'S RESPONSE: Ummm . . . it's the sort of thing that you don't find too easy to talk about?

STUDENT: Well, I dunno . . . maybe some of the guys would laugh at me for talking like this. Anyway, it's this way . . . You know Dr. Jones, the Latin professor, don't you?

BROWN'S REACTION: There's a struggle here between his personal feelings and the code of the peer group. It is probably a moral issue and he is being forced to do something that is counter to his beliefs. I wonder what he's going to say about Jones? Students have more damn trouble with that guy. Why can't he wise up to himself?

BROWN'S RESPONSE: Yes, I know him quite well. You say that some of the fellows would laugh at you for talking like this. Why do you think that?

SMITH'S REACTION: You're in a sort of spot. You're hesitant to talk about this because of the possible reaction of your friends. You feel strongly enough about this though, that you will discuss it anyway.

SMITH'S RESPONSE: Ummm . . . yes, I know him slightly, Joe.

STUDENT: I don't like him very much—nobody does (*long pause*). You know, he gives the same sort of tests nearly all the time. The other day I noticed some of the guys talking, so I went over to them and they had a copy of the final test that he's going to give us the day after tomorrow. I dunno how they got it. Anyway, they were all talking about the questions and laughing and treating it as quite a joke. Now don't get me wrong—I'm no lily of the valley or anything like that, but it just happens that I don't think that cheating is good, that's all, even if it is old Jones's exam. But these guys are my pals. I don't want to cheat, but I've seen the exam, and I can't very well go and tell old man Jones about it because that will get all the other kids in trouble. Boy, I'm damned if I know what to do.

BROWN'S REACTION: He presses this point about his not wanting to cheat



quite a bit. There's some evidence of guilt feelings here. This whole reaction might be caused by his lack of ability to accept his desire to cheat. I'm a bit skeptical about these protestations of honor.

**BROWN'S RESPONSE:** Why can't you tell Dr. Jones that you picked up one of his old papers—which is true—and that there may be others around. He will certainly make up a new examination then and you won't be getting any of your friends into trouble. Doesn't that sound reasonable?

**SMITH'S REACTION:** You feel sort of torn between these two desires. It does go against your grain to cheat but you also feel a pretty strong attachment to the values set up by your peer group. You can't see what to do to satisfy what you think are the desires of your peer group and what you feel that you should do.

**SMITH'S RESPONSE:** You mean, while on the one hand you don't want to place yourself in the position of cheating, on the other hand you feel that you'll likely get your friends into trouble if you tell Dr. Jones about it.

In even the first few reactions and responses, then, the basic difference in the orientation of these two counselors is obvious. In both cases, the attitude of the counselor is "showing." Some counselors may be more successful than others in disguising their true attitude, but almost surely the client will soon begin to feel the inconsistency between what the counselor says and what he really feels. The client-centered approach is more a matter of counselor attitude than it is a matter of skill in a technique or a method. It is a philosophy and a belief. It is a basic and integral part of the individual.

The excerpt given below is the expression of feeling of a young man in his late twenties. This man has been a student of psychology, and he has moved toward a client-centered orientation. At the same time, however, he has been under the care of an analyst, and this is an interesting picture of his feelings about what is happening. The extent to which the reader can feel and go along with this client as he struggles through his conflicting feelings may be some measure of his capacity to function effectively as a counselor.

"The first reaction to the doctor's assuming responsibility was one of relief. I knew I had to go on, but could not face it, and it was a relief to hand over the responsibility, which I had previously considered much more of a two-way proposition. This certainly increased my dependency on her, and made the struggle even harder when I came to realize that actually I had to do so much completely alone to prepare myself for the planned interviews, and that she did not have the solution all tied up in a pretty bundle. Once the therapeutic procedure was planned, I had the feeling each time I left an interview that I was either patted on the back with a 'good boy' or sent away with a 'tch-tch, naughty boy' depending on how well I had followed along with the next step of the procedure. It seems as though all this feeling cannot be the best way to develop toward maturity—I would feel she was right, she must be because she knows, and there



must be something wrong with me since I cannot do what she wants. Often I would run to someone I could talk the interview over with in an effort to find out what she was after, or run home in a terrific state of resentment and feeling of being torn to pieces against my will. This would be so much worse, because intellectually so much of the time I would know what she was after, and be unable to give it to her, which made me feel I was being uncooperative—and a 'bad boy.' Surely the creation of all this feeling of being a child who has to do as he is told or be punished cannot be the best way to help an individual become independent."<sup>23</sup>

Of interest to the counselor who is concerned with this matter of attitude is the distinction made by Snygg and Combs<sup>24</sup> between what they refer to as the phenomenal self and the physical self. They think of the phenomenal self as being the self of which one is aware rather than the actual physical self as it is observed by others. They go on further to point out<sup>25</sup> that nondirective therapy appears to be a consciously created situation, in which the client is free to differentiate more adequately his phenomenal self, the external world, and the relationship of the two. It utilizes the client's own need to maintain or enhance his phenomenal self as a driving force.

The extent to which the counselor can understand this phenomenal self is one of the measures of the client-centered counselor's effectiveness. A more dominant counselor will probably be reacting to the client's physical self and will have very little awareness of the phenomenal self. When Snygg and Combs compare treatment techniques with client meanings they are also pointing out the difference between the client-centered counselor and the dominant problem-centered counselor. They differentiate between treatment and client meanings as follows:<sup>26</sup>

#### *Treatment Techniques*

#### *Client Meanings*

Telling a child to be good.  
Giving a needy client a goal.  
Warning a client to avoid day dreaming.  
Reassuring that "this is going to be all right."  
Giving advice.  
Foster home placement.  
Institutional placement.

He thinks I'm bad!  
I can't support my family!  
Good Lord! I'm going crazy!  
He's afraid it isn't going to be all right.  
I can do that now—it's his responsibility—he told me to go ahead.  
"They think my family isn't good. Well, I'll show them guys!"  
"I'm a real tough guy, I am. They gotta lock me up."

<sup>23</sup> See Appendix 21 for the complete statement from this client.

<sup>24</sup> Snygg, Donald, and Arthur W. Combs, *Individual Behavior*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949, pp. 56-57.

<sup>25</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 328.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 288.

Being more sensitive to feelings, the client-centered counselor will never be unfeeling enough to assume that telling a child to be good can be considered as a form of treatment. The very fact that a counselor does this, and assumes that something positive will happen, indicates that he lacks the skill and capacity and understanding necessary if one is to be an effective client-centered counselor.

Equally interesting to the client-centered counselor is Lecky's theory on the matter of self-consistency.<sup>27</sup> Lecky's basic point was that we must be consistent with our self as we see it. A boy who is quite capable of learning how to read without difficulty may not learn to read because reading is not consistent with his concept of the boy role that he must play. A woman may loathe and hate her child but she cannot accept this hatred because her concept of the mother is that of the woman who always loves her children. The client-centered counselor sees his role as the creation of a climate such that, in due time, there can be a reorientation of the concept of the self, so that the individual can come to accept the self and be consistent with his concept of it. When reading becomes consistent with the concept of the self, then the boy may begin to learn to read; when the acceptance of the hatred that one possesses for one's child becomes consistent with the self, then the individual may be able to accept this hatred and proceed to move ahead.<sup>28</sup>

While the increasing emphasis has been on the counselor and the counselor's attitudes, this should not be taken to mean that techniques or methods are of little or no importance. Counseling will continue to remain, to some extent at least, a skill as well as an art. There are techniques that almost invariably produce negatives results, and there are techniques that generally produce positive results. Berdie voices a wise word of warning when he says: <sup>29</sup>

The awareness of the importance of counselors' attitudes has implicit in it the danger of ignoring the importance of counseling techniques. To maintain a proper balance, not only must the dependency of techniques and attitudes upon one another be recognized, but the limitations of each in counseling must be considered.

The client-centered counselor, then, *feels* as much as he *believes* in what he is doing. The techniques and the methods that he uses are tied very closely to his personality. He cannot follow more diagnostic and directive procedures, not so much because he questions the results of the use of such techniques and methods, but because they go counter to his belief in the

<sup>27</sup> Lecky, Prescott, *Self Consistency: A Theory of Personality*, New York: Island Press Co-operative, Inc., 1945.

<sup>28</sup> See Appendix 22 for the typescript of a client-centered counseling session.

<sup>29</sup> Berdie, Ralph F., "Counselor Attitudes," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 11:353-354, Autumn, 1951.

rights of the individual. The client-centered counselor recognizes that there are many roads that lead to Rome, but he cannot follow all of them because he lacks the necessary skill, and he knows that he would not want to walk down some of these roads even if he could acquire the skill. The attitude that makes him an accepting individual who has a strong belief in the rights and the strengths of others is a part of his whole make-up rather than a learned technique or method. When he is counseling he is not performing a counseling role. He is simply being himself. He cannot become eclectic any more than a true and righteous Mohammedan could become an equally true and righteous Christian.

## CHAPTER 7 *Teaching in Institutions of Higher Learning*

It seems only reasonable that a book that is concerned with student-personnel services in institutions of higher education should give some thought to teaching, the personnel service experienced by all students, and the concern of all faculty members. There is sometimes a tendency among college teachers to think of teaching as the end in itself, without realizing that the basic concern of the teacher is learning rather than teaching. If learning is indicated by the changing of behavior, then teaching can be considered as little more than a process that helps the student to learn.

Until a very few years ago there was no such thing as a preparation for college teaching, and the college student who happened to get a real teacher as an instructor was a fortunate person. College and university administrators today, however, are rapidly coming to realize that there is a dearth of good teaching in higher education, and they are taking steps to train college teachers, and to expect that candidates who apply for teaching jobs will have some preparation for that task. It has been an intriguing fact that, while it has been assumed that four or five years of training is necessary to make an effective elementary- or secondary-school teacher, the only requisite for college teaching has been a higher degree, preferably the Ph.D. in the subject that the individual will teach. The standard traditional road to a professorship in an institution of higher learning has been to attain a bachelor's, a master's, and finally a doctor's degree, to go through an apprenticeship as an instructor, and ultimately to receive an appointment as an assistant professor. The Ph.D. is traditionally a research degree, but the occupation that hires the most Ph.D.'s is teaching. It does not seem unreasonable to expect that the Ph.D. candidate who is going to spend the greater part of his time in teaching should be given some understanding about the occupation that will employ him.

Some college administrators have felt that there is little need of teaching at the college level, since the college is a place for intellectual endeavor,



and the student is expected to draw on the store of wisdom and understanding and knowledge that he will find in an institution of higher learning. This would be a valid argument if the American college of today were populated only by the keenest of scholars, but the college of today is no longer the institution of abstract reasoning and research that it may once have been, any more than the student of today is the traditional scholar of the past. The range of students who experience a college education today is much broader than the range of students who experienced a high-school education a century ago. If we are to accept the American concept that higher education is no longer only for the select and intellectually gifted individual, but is for as much as half of the youthful population of the country, then it is obvious that an institution of higher learning needs teachers rather than "instructors." This need for teachers is particularly apparent at the undergraduate level, which today occupies much the same status as the secondary school did a century ago.

Nowhere in teaching is there a greater need for the personnel point of view than in an institution of higher learning, and nowhere is there less in the way of teacher training than in the preparation of college teachers. The majority of the professorial staff of a college are teachers, but they cannot be effective teachers if they have neither concern nor respect for the individual student, and if they have no understanding or knowledge of the behavior of either the individual or the group. There should certainly be no attempt to make the college teacher less of a scholar, but, if an institution of higher learning is ever to come close to achieving its objectives, it must help its faculty to become better teachers, and one of the major criteria to be considered in the hiring of a new faculty member must be his ability to teach effectively.

### THE STUDENT GROUP

The modern college teacher is aware that when he is teaching a group of students he is not simply teaching an aggregation of individuals. Too frequently a "group" of college students is nothing more than a number of individuals, each completely independent from the other. Learning will be facilitated if a class of college students is really functioning as a group where there is a dynamic interaction, and where, as a result, there is some possibility of attitudinal change. Slavson<sup>1</sup> refers to a group as "an aggregation of three or more persons in an informal face-to-face relation where there is direct and dynamic interaction among the individuals comprising it, and as a result the personality of each member is fundamentally modified." A class of college students does not often satisfy this definition of a

<sup>1</sup> Slavson, S. R., *An Introduction to Group Therapy*, New York: Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publication, 1943, p. 2.

group, and one of the major reasons is that the traditional college teacher, functioning as the dominant leader, makes it impossible for the class of students ever to become an integrated group.

It is very seldom in any college that students have any voice whatever in the construction of the college curriculum and in the teaching of the courses offered. Many college courses have been taught for decades without any attempt being made to discover the student reaction to the courses. Students should be on every curriculum committee. Not only can they offer intelligent help in the planning of the curriculum, but they can give firsthand evidence of the student reaction to the curriculum. A certain subject may be absolutely essential, but if it does nothing but bore or irritate the students it might just as well not be offered.

Students should also be asked by instructors to evaluate their course offering. The results may sometimes be hard on the instructor's ego, but it is the only way that he can discover how his course is being received. A form used by a professor at Boston University School of Education is shown in Appendix 23, and one used by the guidance department at New York University is shown in Appendix 24. In the latter case the use of the form is required, and in some institutions student ratings of professors are used in decisions on promotions and salary increases. Although every instructor on his own initiative should periodically check the student reaction to his course, it is questionable whether this should become administrative procedure. This may have a serious effect on faculty morale, and teaching will not be improved if faculty members feel they must win a popularity contest to get a promotion. The best teachers are not always those individuals who would win first place in a popularity contest!

Some of the most significant research in the nature of the group process, as it is applied to educational situations, has come from the Human Dynamics Laboratory at the University of Chicago. In describing this research, Herbert Thelan<sup>2</sup> suggests the following as significant propositions that have developed:

- a. That the teacher's behavior in large measure determines the quality of emotional conditions in the classroom
- b. That learning of certain social attitudes and human relations principles is affected by teacher-pupil interaction
- c. That teacher-pupil interaction patterns may affect the student at deep (i.e., sub-conscious) levels
- d. That pupil-pupil interaction (e.g., status roles) can be influenced by the nature of teacher-pupil interaction
- e. That the assumption that teacher behavior significantly influences the quality of student participation can be generalized to adult groups

<sup>2</sup> Thelan, Herbert A., "Experimental Research toward a Theory of Instruction," *Journal of Educational Research*, 45:91-92, October, 1951.

While it would appear to be desirable that every student class function as a dynamic group, it is obvious that there can be no one set of standards in teaching a college course. The basic concern of a course such as one in statistics may be the increasing of the student's store of knowledge. Some of the courses offered in a business-education department or a physical-education department may have as their chief concern the learning of a skill or technique. In all of these courses, however, the common factor is learning, and an objective of all teachers is that learning will take place. Learning, however, is a "self" process, and it cannot take place if the student is not motivated to learn. The original extent of this motivation is highly affected by the student's own objectives in taking the course. When the objectives of both student and teacher show little understanding of the learning process, there is little hope that the course will be a learning experience for either student or instructor. The basic objective of the student may be to get a passing grade and the required three semester hours of credit. Such a barren objective can usually be achieved without too much difficulty as long as the student is of modest intelligence and does not irritate the teacher too much. The student who wishes to learn, however, may sometimes find himself in a frustrating situation if his teacher shows little understanding of the psychology of learning.

Research in the field of learning and in the field of group dynamics suggests that the following items might be worthy of the consideration of college teachers:

1. *The creation of a permissive and acceptant atmosphere.* There is such a thing as a learning climate, and the instructor is the key figure in the creation of that climate. He may discuss his concept of his role as a teacher in the first class session, but the students will likely be somewhat skeptical until he has actually shown that he means what he says. It is difficult for the authoritarian personality to be permissive and acceptant, and it will be obvious to the students that such a teacher's "permissiveness" is nothing more than a role. Teaching may not be an art, but neither is it completely a skill and a technique to be learned by anyone who has the necessary intellectual capacity. The extent to which the teacher can help the class to feel and to understand the permissiveness in the classroom depends to a greater extent on the personality of the teacher than it does on his training.

2. *The understanding of the objectives of teacher and students.* Every student has a right to know the objectives of the instructor who is teaching the course, and the teacher has the right to know the objectives of the students in taking the course. Ideally, a course should aim at the achievement by each student of his objectives, and some students may be helped to see the shallowness of their objectives. If the instructor feels that his objectives must be accepted by the students as their objectives, then he



should be honest enough to discuss these objectives, and to help the students to understand his attitude.

3. *The acceptance of student self-determination as one of the teacher's basic objectives.* The teacher will make it clear by his words and by his actions that the responsibility for the success of a course rests on the individual student. There is no reason why a college course cannot be one of a series of lessons that will help the student to achieve maturity and to move closer to being a free person who is capable of determining his own future. This means, of course, that much of the paraphernalia of the traditional college course must be discarded. It may be that sometime in the future the course grade, the college equivalent of a star for good work, will be abandoned. A student will not be hampered by the limiting pressures of working for a grade, and the motivation will be more basic. What can be done by the individual teacher depends to a great extent on the course that he is teaching, and the rigidity of the administration under which he works. But regardless of the actual limitations, and regardless of the course he is teaching, every teacher should do everything possible to make his course an experience in self-responsibility. It should challenge the maturity of the student and test his capacity to become a self-determining citizen.

4. *Awareness of the interaction among the group.* In most college classes the reaction of students to each other is strictly at an intellectual level, and there is little understanding or acceptance of the hostility and resistance that may be apparent to one who is aware of the group interaction. In classes in human relations, guidance, and counseling, the emphasis is on attitudes, but it takes some students a long time to achieve anything more than a shallow understanding of what is actually happening. For example, a student may be talking about some question which has already been discussed, or he may present a piece of information which is common knowledge to most of the members of the class, or he may indulge in a dull recital of some personal adventure. The students, reacting to the intellectual content in such a discussion, become bored and restless. They are quite unaware that they have before them an experience in human behavior in observing the speaker and noting how he feels and how he behaves.

In one of the author's classes in counseling, an aggressive and dominant student attempted to press his opinion upon the group. Three members of the group sided with him, and the rest of the group was arrayed against him. As he continued to speak, the tension in the room mounted, with each group refusing to give or to budge. Each resisted more and more the ideas of the opposing group. The leader at this point suggested a five-minute "buzz" session, the class already having been divided into a number of discussion groups. At the end of the break, he asked each group to



report on "how you feel about what has been happening." The first two groups reported at a feeling level, one of them indicating what it felt the aggressive student was trying to do. Seven other groups reported in a traditionally intellectual manner, one member even praising another group for the excellence of its oral report. The last group to report referred definitely to feeling, and this moved the rest of the class to become more realistic in referring to their feelings. The student who had originally praised the oral report indicated that he was just being polite, that he had really felt that the whole thing was very boring, and that he was learning nothing from the student who kept coming back again and again with his opinion. By the end of the session the whole group had experienced an emotional ventilation, and at least some had become more aware of their own emotional reactions to it.

The author experienced another demonstration of group interaction in a guidance course that he was teaching in a Western college. He had invited the head of the college counseling center, a man who was leaving shortly for another position, to come in and discuss with the group the role of the teacher in guidance.<sup>3</sup> The class was made up largely of teachers. Dr. Smith, the head of the counseling service, had been briefed to play the role of an individual who was very critical of the author and particularly of the idea that the teacher should play a major role in the guidance program. Eight members of the class were seated around a table, and the rest of the class were in a semicircle of chairs around the smaller group. Dr. Smith was introduced to the group by the leader, who at that moment was called from the room by his secretary. Dr. Smith then proceeded in the next twenty minutes to be politely but definitely critical of the ideas of some of the members of the group and of the absent leader. The hostility and resistance of the group mounted, and it could be felt by the leader when he returned. At that time, Dr. Smith indicated that he had another appointment that he had to keep, and the leader took his place, asking, "Well, what happened?" The members of the group then poured out to the leader their expressions of hostility to Dr. Smith. Dr. Smith returned in the last few minutes of the period, and, when his role was explained to the group, there was some hostility directed toward the leader. The next day the recording was played back, and the class members were generally astounded as they listened to their reactions to someone trying to convince them that their ideas were incorrect. It was a vivid demonstration of what happens when one person tries to convince another individual that he is wrong.

Still another example of a group reaction took place with a group of personnel workers who were gathered together for a group discussion on the effect of emotions on learning. The seating arrangement was much

<sup>3</sup> See Appendix 25 for the typescript of the recording of this session.

the same as in the previously described situation. The leader in this case indicated that three participants would present their ideas on the effect of emotions on learning. The first leader, unknown to the group, was following a laissez-faire role. He passed out a mimeographed sheet and then sat at the head of the table and waited. After an increasingly tense silence, one of the group members asked a question. The leader answered it by saying "Yes," and offered no further comment. For the next twenty minutes the group became more and more irritated as the leader gave no indication of leading the group, and the efforts of one or two other members to get a discussion going broke down. There was obvious relief when the first leader was replaced by another one. This man was authoritarian in his role, and the relief of the group soon changed to hostility and resistance. The new leader was completely dominant. He indicated that he preferred to have questions asked after he had finished his discussion, and gently silenced a member who did ask a question. By the time the third leader, who was to follow a student-centered role, took over, the group was extremely resistant. The third leader in a pleasant and calm manner gradually brought other members into the discussion, asked for their ideas, and offered some of his own thoughts. By the time his twenty minutes had elapsed the group had relaxed and were in a definitely happier mood. The chairman then took over and indicated to the group that they had actually experienced the effect of emotions on learning. Different members of the group, after their initial surprise, then indicated how they had reacted to the different types of leadership. Most of the individuals in the group had reacted emotionally, and a later discussion of the effect of emotional reactions on learning was personal and meaningful.

These are but a few examples of ways in which the members of a group may be helped to become more aware of the interaction within the group and of the role that the leader plays in this total interaction. This is more essential, of course, in courses in such areas as psychology, counseling, guidance, and human relations than it is in courses in the physical sciences or foreign languages. Even in these areas, however, it is questionable whether an effective teaching job can be performed if neither the teacher nor the members of the class are aware of the interaction, or complete lack of interaction, among the class members. There may be a retention of meaningless information until an examination is taken, but there will be little in the way of learning. Knowledge for the sake of knowledge is a luxury that the American people cannot afford in the present day. If the best efforts of a score of college teachers result in nothing more than helping an individual to spend more pleasant hours in secluded contemplation, then people may well question the value of American higher education.

## THE STUDENT-CENTERED COURSE

Educators for centuries have enunciated various principles of teaching such as individual differences, motivations, and a curriculum based on individual needs. There has been general agreement that learning is not synonymous with teaching; that the responsibility for learning rests at least as heavily on the student as it does on the teacher; that education should be student-centered rather than teacher-centered. In guidance work particularly there are more unanswered questions than answered ones, and the ethics of the guidance instructor who attempts to impose his point of view on students may be questioned. On the other hand the instructor must have a point of view with regard to the theory and practice of personnel work, and he cannot be too effective if he tries to convince his students that he has at all times a middle-of-the-road attitude. A frank acknowledgment of bias is better than a pretense of no bias.

The author recently participated in a study that attempted to determine the effectiveness and the feasibility of student-centered courses in the area of personnel work. The three courses chosen for study were a graduate course in counseling for counselors, an undergraduate course in guidance principles for seniors who would be teaching in the fall, and an undergraduate extension course in human relations with a group of teachers in the field. The groups were large, the enrollment in the first class being 107, in the second 99, and in the third 41.

The extent to which the courses were student-centered may be measured by the procedure followed. This was the procedure, of course, as seen through the eyes of the instructor. Each class was given a course outline, a bibliography, and two evaluation forms. The instructor emphasized that the course outline was nothing more than a broad general suggestion of what might be discussed, and that the students would be responsible for the discussion of the different topics, and for the general direction of the course. One evaluation form was presented as the instructor's idea of criteria that might be useful in self-evaluation. The three major criteria were knowledge, skills and techniques, and attitudinal change. More specific items discussed as applicable to the general criteria were assignments, examinations, quizzes, reading, group participation, outside activities, general relations with people, and class attendance. A copy of this form is shown in Appendix 26. It was emphasized that these were merely presented as suggestions that might be helpful for some in their self-evaluation. If the student didn't like them, he was free to discard them. No assignments were compulsory. The instructor indicated that he would be happy to give his reaction to the students' work if they so desired, but they were responsible for what they did with the assignments. A final



examination was given, it was discussed in class, the students scored their own examination papers, and the grade allocation was decided by a group of students who had taken on that task as an assignment. The self-evaluation form was used by the student to help him to determine his grade. The second evaluation form was used by the student for his anonymous evaluation of the course. A copy of this form is shown in Appendix 23.

From the instructor's frame of reference, this was the situation: full responsibility for the honest evaluation of the course, as each individual student experienced it, was thrown on the shoulders of the student. Whether the course was a success or failure depended more on the student than on the instructor. The student was treated as a mature and honest adult. The instructor felt that his role was to aid the student in coming to a better understanding of himself as well as of others, and to aid in the acquiring of skills and techniques that could be used to help others. The instructor did not feel that his role was judgmental or evaluative. He attempted continually to practice his nonevaluative, permissive, and helpful role. He accepted the attitudes of the students although he personally felt that they were in error, *e.g.*, the student in the counseling course who made it quite clear that she felt that therapy was impossible if analysis was not used, and the student in the human relations course who felt that the best way to treat the modern school child was to punish him physically. While the instructor did not indicate that he believed these points of view, he attempted to show that he respected the student's right to feel that way if he so desired. He did not want the student to feel that he should adopt the instructor's point of view in order to get a good grade. If there was any attitudinal change, it was hoped that it would be a *real* change. Every attempt was made to avoid pressuring the students in any way to accept the instructor's ideas. The instructor made the course as realistic and as functional as possible.

At the end of the courses, the students handed in their two evaluation sheets. One was the personal evaluation, including the grade, while the other was the anonymous evaluation of the course. The self-evaluation of the students was compared with the instructor's evaluation of a group of students taking a similar course the previous year, and it was also compared with the student's mean grade in the other courses that he took while he was taking the experimental course.

It was quite evident that the students generally were much more generous in their grading than was their instructor. They also gave themselves a higher score than their mean grade in the other courses taken at the same time would appear to warrant. Was this because the students really did learn more in this type of course? Was the subjectivity of the student in evaluating his own progress less than that of the instructor when he acted as the evaluator? Did the difference in grades really indicate that



students cannot realistically grade themselves? Did it indicate that they took advantage of the trust placed in them?

A further breakdown of the student's self-evaluation, as compared with their mean score on other subjects taken at the same time, shows that in the graduate course, of the self-evaluated A students, the mean grade of 25 per cent was A, that of 73 per cent was B, and that of 2 per cent was C. Of the self-evaluated B students, the mean grade of 10 per cent was A, that of 87 per cent was B, and that of 3 per cent was C. In the undergraduate course, of the self-evaluated A students, the mean grade of 16 per cent was A, that of 76 per cent was B, and that of 8 per cent was C. Of the self-evaluated B students, the mean grade of 8 per cent was A, that of 56 per cent was B, and that of 36 per cent was C. Of the self-evaluated C students, the mean grade of 74 per cent was B, that of 13 per cent was C, and that of 13 per cent was D.

The general reaction of the students in the three classes to this type of course was very similar. The courses were apparently of value to the students, they seemingly achieved their objectives at least to some extent, and the vast majority preferred this type of course for this type of subject. Some of the reasons for this preference may be noted in the student replies to the questions that asked what they liked and disliked about the course.

These answers made fascinating reading. They ranged from the completely negative answer (the course was of no value, my objectives were not at all achieved, I do not prefer this type of course, I liked nothing about the course, and I disliked everything about the course) to the completely positive reaction (the course was of much value, my objectives were completely achieved, I would prefer this type of course, I liked everything about the course, and I disliked nothing about the course). These two students *took* the same course, but they *experienced* an entirely different course.

By far the most dominant comment had to do with the feeling, the climate, *the atmosphere in the class*. Typical of the scores of comments on this factor *were the following:*

"I experienced none of the tension prevalent in the traditional type of course."

"The unrushed attitude of the class."

"The feeling of good fellowship that prevailed at all times."

"I liked the feeling that the instructor was not merely a fount of knowledge."

"The opportunity for free expression of thought."

"The comfortable atmosphere in the class allowing for growth without the pressure of grades."

"The lack of tension."

"The assumption that students are fundamentally honest."

"The course, because of the lack of emphasis on 'get this or else,' seemed to be of more value."

"The atmosphere of 'learn if you want to, nobody is going to make you.'"

"For the first time I was treated as a grownup."

"I actually learned something for a change."

"The lack of the drudgery of the traditional course."

"The feeling of oneness in so large a group."

"I enjoyed being responsible for my own progress."

"It was the most enriching experience of my undergraduate days."

"The informal attitude of the class."

"I didn't take a single note but I feel there was real learning on my part."

"The opportunity for free expression of thought."

"Informality and frankness."

"Never had a course which carried more into my daily thinking and learning."

"I never had a course like this—it really opened up new fields for me."

Many of the comments were indicative of increased insight:

"The course stimulated my thinking by challenging my preconceived notions and ideas."

"Gave an insight of the people I live and work with."

"The course helped to straighten out things now bothering me."

"It was a challenge to my way of thinking."

"I learned to understand myself, and why I have made errors in the classroom."

"It helped to develop understanding in me."

"Complete responsibility given to the student."

"The feeling of freedom of thought that was always in the room."

"The lack of the tight 'teacher rein.'"

The major dislike had to do with the students themselves. Scores of students made caustic references to the behavior of their fellow students. It was interesting to note that many of the students could not accept the hostile, aggressive, and ill-mannered attitude of some of their fellows, although it had been accepted by the instructor. This was sometimes quite evident in the class discussion. Typical of the comments that expressed this feeling were the following:

"Too much time wasted by a few students who knew less but talked more."

"I felt 'morally hurt' upon seeing people cheating during the final exam."

"The demagoguery of a few individuals."

"Democracy needs training to be successful—it seemed to me that few in the class had that training."

"Too many people took advantage of the permissive atmosphere."

"Arguments over trivial details by a few individuals."

"Unnecessary comments by people who had no business being in college."

"The misfortune of having a few people who thought they were making a constructive criticism, while all the time it was destructive and a display of their egoism."

"The picayune attitudes of some students."

"Apparently many in the class were not used to being treated as adults."

"Noted rudeness of some taking the course."

"We all hoped that you would do something with the class show-off."

"Teachers are too noisy."

"I did not like the way people talked among themselves."

"Too much talking in undertones by some of the members of the class."

"Too much tolerance of people like Smith."

The instructor was aware of these attitudes, but his feeling was that, while it would be a simple matter to suppress the resistant attitude during the class, this would in no way change the attitude. Did the new experience of having the instructor accept the attitude rejected by his fellows have any effect on the student? Reviewing the comments of the students, and the after-class discussion with many of them, the instructor believed that it did have a positive effect on some students.

The students who liked the self-evaluation procedure were equalled in number by those who disliked it. Typical comments of those who disliked this procedure were the following:

"The grading system was more meaningless than usual. It penalized honesty."

"I think that it's a bit too early in the educational revolution to allow pupils to mark themselves."

"The difficulty of accepting an attitude toward grading in an institution which places emphasis on specific marks."

"The marking system wasn't fair."

"I cannot see that this self-evaluation should go down as the final mark."

On the other hand, some students felt this way about the self-evaluation:

"The method of self-evaluation should develop honesty in students."

"I liked the student's own evaluation of his work."

"The freedom to evaluate the self was good."

"The method of grading was fine."

"I liked self-evaluation."

"The emphasis on self-evaluation was appreciated."

Another place where there was a division of opinion was on the ques-

tion of the class discussion. The freedom of all members of the class to speak at any time to any point was appreciated by those who commented as follows:

"I gained new ideas through the discussion."

"I liked the down-to-earth discussion."

"In the discussions I learned much from others' opinions."

"The discussion periods were good."

"I liked the idea of free discussion and class participation."

"There was a democratic policy in the discussions."

"I enjoyed the freedom in the discussions."

On the other hand, these students disliked the discussions:

"The extent of the discussion left the student without understanding the fundamentals."

"The discussion was allowed to ramble."

"Too much discussion of minor topics."

"The discussion at times appeared to be out of hand."

"There was a tendency in the discussions to get too far off the subject."

"There were numerous irrelevant arguments and discussions."

What, if anything, does all this indicate about the student-centered course? These would appear to be a few conclusions that might be drawn from the study:

1. The students, with few exceptions, liked the course. The student comments would tend to indicate that for a great many it was a learning as well as a likable experience.

2. Many times students expressed what would appear to be contradictory feelings. Some liked the responsibility, but they didn't like the idea of self-evaluation. Some liked the informality, but felt that the instructor allowed the discussions to wander. Some liked the permissive atmosphere, but felt that the instructor should have stepped on some of the more obstreperous students.

3. For many students the idea of self-evaluation was a strange new challenge. For some it was threatening; for others it was exhilarating. For all it was different.

4. It was a learning experience for the instructor. It was also a lesson in understanding people, since the feelings and attitudes expressed in the classes were such that would seldom be heard in the traditional college classroom. The students came closer to being themselves rather than being, for the moment, what the instructor wanted them to be.

5. The students appeared to be more sharply aware and critical of the behavior of some of their fellow students.

If a graduate degree in personnel and counseling is to mean anything, then it would seem reasonable to assume that it does not mean that the



student has shown competence and capacity in certain areas. It also assumes that the extent of the competence and capacity has not been measured by the student himself. If a student has received an A in a counseling practicum, this usually means that as far as the instructor is concerned, the student has shown competence in the actual process of counseling. On the other hand, the measures to be used in evaluating the student are by no means the same. The author knows many students who have said, in effect, "I do not believe what I am doing—I am going against my own belief, my own convictions, and the results of my own study, but if I want an A from Professor Blank, then I go along with him." The author also knows that for many students this has been an unpleasant and even a shocking experience.

Could there be some sort of a compromise? If the material presented by the instructor represents his frame of reference toward unsettled issues—and in personnel work there are many—could this not be clearly indicated to the student? This may be an elementary suggestion, but it is one that many students would be happy to hear from their instructors. If an instructor is giving a course in student-centered counseling, his grade will represent his evaluation of the skill of the student in using client-centered techniques. It should be made clear that the effectiveness of some of these techniques may be subject to much criticism. The instructor's grade represents his estimate of the student's skill in using a technique or a method that may be accepted by some instructors, but rejected by others.

The final grade may also be arrived at after a discussion between student and instructor. Many students may feel that they would have little choice but to go along with the instructor, but this technique does give them a chance to give their own opinion of their worth. It is also true that the small group of students who might show little insight in self-evaluation would be somewhat more hesitant about giving themselves an A if they knew they had to talk with the instructor about it.

It is highly desirable, however, that, in working for a degree in such an area as personnel and counseling, the student should take at least one course where the entire emphasis will be on self-evaluation, where he will at least have to face up to the responsibility of looking at himself. Some students training to be counselors may measure traits considered essential for counselors by relative means. If the standard procedure is to hand in someone else's assignment, or one that has already been used in another course, it becomes easy to rationalize. It may become common practice to indicate acceptance of a professor's point of view if this will guarantee an A grade. Surely every student training to be a personnel worker should be placed in a position where he alone will be responsible for the measurement of his integrity and morality, where he will have to

ask himself whether he can excuse his own dishonesty because he sees dishonesty in others, whether he can be consistent with his own philosophy, yet change it according to a professor's wishes.

## THE COLLEGE TEACHER

A college or university really consists of its teachers. They are its heart and they are the reason for its existence. College students may benefit tremendously from the various other personnel services but they do not come to an institution of higher learning because of its health services, its counseling services, or its religious services. Most students realize, although some may realize it in a vague way, that they come to college for an education, and they will get that education with the help of college teachers. What of this college teacher? What is he like? What should he be like?

As has been previously indicated, there has been, until recently, little possibility of finding out what a college teacher was supposed to have in the way of training, since there was no such thing as training for college teachers. However, this is no longer the case, and numerous institutions throughout the country have now accepted the responsibility for the training of college teachers. The two basic measures of the college teacher, like any other teacher, have to do with his training and his personality. Let us first look at the training of the college teacher.

1. Every teacher should have thorough knowledge of the subject matter that he is to teach. It goes without saying that the college instructor should have a keen understanding of the material that he is to teach, but there is also the very real danger of overspecialization. The teacher may also be a researcher, but the individual whose first love is research will likely be ineffective as a teacher, since he will be more concerned with what he teaches and have little concern for those who are being taught. There are some who feel that one cannot be an effective college teacher unless he has done a good deal of research in his area of study. This may be so at the graduate level, but it is surely not so at the undergraduate level. It is unfortunate that most administrators, in considering faculty promotions, are much more influenced by publications and other indications of research capacity than they are by evidence of the professor's success as a teacher. Students react to the teacher, not to the articles or books that he has written. A good teacher will be a better teacher if he engages in a good deal of research, but the effectiveness of a teacher cannot be measured by his research in the subject area that he may be teaching. The faculty member whose heart is in research might better be in a laboratory than in a classroom.

2. The college teacher's professional training must include an extensive study of human behavior, the measurement of behavior, group dynamics,

the social order and the part of higher education in that social order, and the responsibility of the college teacher to the society in which he lives.

3. The professional study of the college teacher must also be concerned with the understanding of the self. This cannot be left to the discretion of the student. It is the responsibility of the institution training a student to become a teacher to aid him to come to a better understanding of his own behavior. It should help him to come to accept himself and to be more capable of meeting in a positive manner the various student reactions that he is bound to encounter.

4. Supervised internship and experience in teaching and other forms of personnel work is necessary. If college teachers are to understand students and student behavior, it is necessary that they not only have a good deal of experience in actual teaching, but that they have other supervised experiences in personnel work. Work in settlement houses, in hospitals, and in guidance clinics should be a part of the professional preparation of college teachers.

These are requisites in the training of the college teacher, but much more difficult for the training institution is the measurement of his personality patterns. It is relatively simple to describe generally the personality traits of the good teacher, but it is extremely difficult to determine the extent to which one may be measuring up to the desired ideal. There is little difference between the characteristics of the good counselor and those of the good teacher:

1. He should be an individual who has come to some understanding of himself, one who can accept his weakness and strengths, one who does not feel under pressure to resist the truth about himself.

2. He will be an individual who does not have to learn to accept those who are different. In his calmness and stability the acceptance of others as they are for what they are will be a normal part of his total make-up. He will not play the role of the understanding and permissive and tolerant individual. He will merely be himself. He will be able to accept honestly the aggressiveness and hostility of others.

3. He will be an individual who has not allowed the intellectual task of teaching to dull his sensitivity, so that he reacts to verbalisms rather than to feelings. He will understand what is said, but he will react more to what is being *felt* rather than to what is being *said*.

4. He will have a sense of humor and will never take himself too seriously. He will be practically incapable of being judgmental or moralistic. While these traits in others will be accepted by him, they will be foreign to his nature.

5. He will enjoy living, and his living will not be vicarious. He will be a complete person.

6. He will be quietly confident of the importance of his task. He will

not be derogatory about other occupations, but, for him, there will be no task so important as teaching.

7. He will have an abiding faith in his fellow men and an unshakable belief in their ultimate capacities for good.

8. He will have a comprehensive knowledge about people, but he will always be the student, and he will always be eager to learn. His classes will be experiences in learning for teacher as well as for students.

This, then, is the college teacher. He is the heart of an institution of higher learning, for without him it would have no purpose. But regardless of his skill and knowledge he can never completely perform his task as it should be performed if he is not personnel-minded and, to some extent, at least, personnel-trained.



## CHAPTER 8 *Religious Services*

One might assume that a religious program in an institution of higher learning would attempt to promote religion, but it is a barren program if it does no more than this. If the college has taken its nondenominational status too seriously to heart, and if religion is viewed as something too controversial to be a part of the total personnel program, then the religious program will be isolated and ineffective. If the college is strictly denominational, the basic purpose of its existence will be the strengthening of its faith, and its religious program may be little more than an indoctrination in one belief.

In an increasing number of institutions throughout the United States the religious program is not considered from either of these extreme viewpoints. It is recognized that in the student body are individuals of many faiths, and some of no faith. The religious program recognizes doctrinal differences, and it does not concentrate on denominational teaching. It promotes both an understanding of religion and experiences in religion. These aims may be achieved by the study of the history and the teachings of religions, a basically intellectual process; by experiences in church groups, chapel, and other group activities, which may be a combination of the intellectual and the emotional experience; and by religiously oriented counseling, which is basically emotional in nature and may help the student to understand his religious confusion and uncertainty.

Regardless of the type of institution, religion is an important factor in the lives of many students, and it cannot be ignored as if it did not exist. For many students religion is a personal problem, and, as such, it is the concern of every personnel worker. Most institutions of higher learning would agree that one of their basic objectives is the development of ethical character. Most individuals would at least say that religion can play an important part in the development of the moral being, although some may say that the conventionally "religious" person presents no evidence to indicate that he is a better citizen than his less religious brother.

In any case, all will agree that the promotion of good living should be a part of the plan and the purpose of a university, and the religious services of the university should be vitally concerned with this aim.

## THE HISTORY OF RELIGIOUS SERVICES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education in the United States was religiously centered at the outset. The early schools and colleges in the country were built by religious groups for religious purposes. The church had a monopoly on higher education; there was little of the modern pressure of knowledge and scientific research on religious doctrine and dogma; and the students were the selected few who themselves were religiously oriented. Hawley<sup>1</sup> points out that scarcely one of the early settlers of America ever dreamed of the separation of religion from education. The early colleges were established to preserve and propagate the faith, to educate their membership, and to recruit and train the clergy. Harvard College was founded "to advance Learning, and perpetuate it to Posterity, dreading to leave an illiterate Ministry to the Churches, when our present Ministers shall lie in the Dust."<sup>2</sup>

Regarding early Catholic colleges, Ryan<sup>3</sup> points out: "Historically our colleges did not develop from the idea of preparing men for the ministry, though the achievement of that objective was uppermost in the mind of John Carroll, the founder of Georgetown College, the first Catholic college in the United States." As to their objectives, the same writer<sup>4</sup> indicates that the Catholic Church was, in the early days, and is, even today, interested in rebuilding "a system of higher schools of the same grade and imbued with something like the ideals which animated Middle Age university education."

In the centuries that have passed since the establishment of Harvard and Georgetown the prestige and the influence of the church college has waned considerably. The dominant institutions of higher learning in the United States today are either state institutions or nondenominational private institutions that have all but dropped their denominational affiliation and control. Catholic colleges still retain their original religious orientation, but many colleges that were originally Protestant institutions have become nondenominational or interdenominational. Thus, by far the greater proportion of students and faculty in Catholic colleges are Cath-

<sup>1</sup> Hawley, Charles A., in Milton C. Towner (ed.), *Religion in Higher Education*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931, p. 264.

<sup>2</sup> Cubberley, Ellwood P., *Readings in the History of Education*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920, p. 290.

<sup>3</sup> Ryan, James H., "Religion in the Catholic College," in Robert L. Kelly (ed.), *The Effective College*, New York: Association of American Colleges, 1928, p. 220.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 221.

olics, whereas, in former Protestant institutions that have dropped their denominational status, the religious beliefs of both students and faculty represent a cross-sampling of the faiths of the people of the United States.

The American scholar of today, eager to learn from the knowledge and the wisdom of the wisest minds in the country, is unlikely to go to an institution where the faith of the faculty member is more important than his knowledge or research capacity. A student in search of knowledge may feel that he is going to be handicapped if he is to be excluded from all scholars other than those who believe as he does. This is no doubt one of the major reasons why the denominational institutions of today have a lessened influence in higher education.

The scholar may also be somewhat skeptical of the learning he may experience in any institution which believes that the purpose of research is to prove that what is true is true. There can be little true research if there are forbidden areas, and if the attitude of the institution is that "truths" based on faith alone can be taken as the basis for further research. Science cannot accept as a truth something that is no more than a hypothesis, liable to be proved or disproved as time goes on. The scholar may sometimes find the atmosphere in a denominational college not conducive to research if there are numerous hypotheses that must be accepted as the truth. This attitude is much less prevalent today, of course, than it was a century ago, but it would probably be accurate to say that it is still much more evident in denominational than in nondenominational colleges.

An equally important reason for the decline of the importance of the church college is financial. The financial control of higher education has largely passed from the hands of the church to the state and the Federal government. State-supported institutions have the financial resources of the state and the country behind them, while the church colleges must depend on their own treasuries.

An objective of the Catholic Church is to establish a complete set of sectarian schools, right from the kindergarten up to the university. The religious affiliation of the educator will probably affect his concept of the meaning of religion in higher education. For some educators religion in higher education is limited to their own religion. For others religion in higher education means religion for students of all faiths in an institution with a faculty representative of all faiths. There would appear to be a much greater possibility of indoctrination in an institution in which only one faith is known and accepted, than in an institution where religious differences among faculty and students are accepted and appreciated.

A Protestant attitude on this question of religion in higher education is expressed by Williams: <sup>5</sup> "The major educational problem facing Prot-

<sup>5</sup> Williams, J. Paul, "Let Church Colleges Pioneer," *The Christian Century*, 65:1361, Dec. 15, 1948. Used by permission.

estantism is how to provide religious experiences which are capable of developing spiritual maturity in the life of a people whose major training is received under public auspices."

Secularization probably reached its peak around the First World War, and since that time there would appear to be not only an increasing interest in, but a more intelligent attitude toward, religion in higher education. It is unlikely that religion will be forced on college students by such means as compulsory Bible courses and compulsory chapel attendance, which the elective system did much to remove. On the other hand, it is recognized that the understanding of different religions is an important part of any whole education; that experience of chapel and religious services offer for many students a deep and meaningful experience; that religion may be the answer to the problems of some students; that the problems of many students have a religious orientation that can be best understood through counseling.

The religious program of the modern nondenominational or interdenominational college goes far beyond the narrow indoctrination in the infallibility of a faith. It recognizes the fact that the people of the United States represent many faiths, and it attempts to help students to get more from their own religion and to be better because of their religion, rather than trying to convert them from one belief to another. The religious program is integrated with, and is a basic part of, the total personnel program, which accepts as a basic tenet the worth of the individual. The program extends beyond the confines of the classroom and even of the college, and its importance is recognized by the appointment of administrators to direct it. In many large institutions Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant chaplains work together to develop a program that will be meaningful for all students.

### IS THERE A NEED FOR A RELIGIOUS PROGRAM?

It is not enough to assume that there is a need for a religious program in an institution of higher learning. The cynic might ask, "Why?" and his question will have much meaning if, by a religious program, we mean the enforced attendance at meaningless chapel services and religious courses that are the duller of the college curricular fare; the signing of "I will do good" cards, much as used to be practiced in kindergarten classes; or the hysteria of mass confessional meetings where adults go through a prolonged emotional catharsis.

If reference was made to the need for exposure to religion so that individuals may lead a more moral and better life, the cynic might point to the results of numerous studies. Thayer,<sup>6</sup> for example, quotes Negler K.

<sup>6</sup> Thayer, V. T., *Religion in Public Education*, New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1947, p. 109.



Teeters, who found that 71.8 per cent of the inmates of a number of prisons and reform schools were affiliated with a church, while only 46.6 per cent of the total population were affiliated. Thayer<sup>7</sup> also mentions a study by Hugh Hartshorne and Mark May, which indicated that children who attended Sunday School acted no better than did other children of similar background who lacked religious instruction. In the same book,<sup>8</sup> reference is also made to a study by Hightower, who tested 3,000 children and found that there was no relation between Biblical information and the different phases of conduct.

Many studies have given a rather dismal picture of the American college student in the matter of his concern with religion. Harris,<sup>9</sup> for example, stated a quarter of a century ago that the average American undergraduate student concerned himself with technically formulated religious beliefs about as much as the average garage hand did with differential calculus. He also believed, as a result of a poll, that the majority of students were indifferent to religion, and that they felt that no one was really interested in what came from the pulpit.<sup>10</sup> In 1930 Angell<sup>11</sup> stated that a study of 216 undergraduates showed that there were only 37.7 per cent who were really interested in religion, while over 50 per cent had no interest whatsoever. In the same year Boyer<sup>12</sup> referred to a survey of New York University students in the sociology, economics, and government departments. It indicated that most of the students had lost their faith before entering college. A large number attributed their loss of faith to the study of evolution, and a very large percentage declared their disbelief in life after death. In 1938 Lloyd-Jones and Smith<sup>13</sup> were reporting that many students were complacent, bewildered, or in conflict about religion. In 1943 a committee of the American Council on Education<sup>14</sup> referred in a brochure to the student's lack of knowledge about religion, to his confusion over problems of an ethical nature, to his search for an intellectually tenable value-structure for personal and social living, to his theological problems, to his church relationships or interest in any social reconstruction, to his lack of intellectual curiosity or interest in anything beyond his immediate day-to-day activities, and to his skepticism concerning the effectiveness of ideals on controlling human behavior.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 110.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 111.

<sup>9</sup> Harris, Cyril, *The Religion of Undergraduates*, New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926, p. 8.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 16-26.

<sup>11</sup> Angell, Robert C., *A Study in Undergraduate Adjustment*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930, p. 83.

<sup>12</sup> Boyer, Edward S., *Religion in the American College*, New York: The Abingdon Press, 1930, p. 59.

<sup>13</sup> Lloyd-Jones, Esther M., and Margaret Ruth Smith, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, p. 223.

<sup>14</sup> *Religious Counseling of College Students*, American Council on Education Studies, 1943, Series VI, Vol. VII, No. 4, Washington, pp. 39-46.

This is a gloomy picture, but it does not mean that religion has nothing to do with good living. It does, however, raise the possible question that some of the activities described as religious have little to do with the development of the good citizen. Those who are responsible for a college religious program should be aware that, unless religion is something the student may experience and feel, it will probably do little to change him for either good or evil. The religious program must consist of religious experiences that the student will feel, rather than of a block of information that is sorted out with other information and that may or may not be forgotten. This is an obvious point, and religious leaders in colleges are much more cognizant of it than they were a few decades ago. It is also true, however, that the religious programs in many colleges are apparently built on the assumption that character can be taught by the intellectual presentation of religious doctrine and dogma. Information may of course lead to learning, but the evidence would tend to indicate that the assumption that knowledge about religion makes one truly religious is fallacious.

The average college student in a nondenominational college would, on the surface at least, appear to have little interest in religion. He is not particularly antagonistic to religion. He just doesn't care, and his particular faith does not appear to have too much effect on his attitude. In nondenominational colleges the success of religious groups such as the Newman Club, the Hillel Club, and the Christian Association would appear to depend mostly on the entertainment and social assets of the club. Some students attend because they feel they must, but the majority of the students are quite indifferent to such clubs regardless of the lures that are put out to get them to join. There may be many reasons for this indifference. Certainly one of them is the fact that many students grow up in homes where there is either practically no emphasis on religion, or where religion has become a meaningless social requirement. Other students may have drifted away from what appeared to them to be a dogmatic way of thinking, which rejected both the beliefs of all others and the findings of modern research. Certainly many students need help in working out a system of values and a way of life. Religion can help the student in his struggle to find a philosophy, but the religion acceptable during the Middle Ages will not find acceptance in the American college of today.

If religion is to be a part of the total college program, it may be able to do something to correct the sort of situation described some years ago by Charles C. Conover.<sup>15</sup> He quotes a college graduate as saying:

College . . . did not fit my actions into any larger pattern. . . . Until I can get outside of and beyond myself, I have no *permanent* reason why I should overcome laziness in my character; no social imperative whereby a clean community,

<sup>15</sup> Conover, Charles C., "Students and Religion," *Christian Century*, 56:901, July 19, 1939. Used by permission.

rid of open sewers and graft and social disease, comes before my small, petty pursuits. To get such motives one has to go below the surface, and the tragedy is that college never took us very deep. College gave us no philosophy of living. . . . We came away with knowledge but no purpose, and therein is our dilemma.

Such a statement, of course, is a condemnation of college education, but, as long as we are to think of religion as being a part of the student's college education, it means that there is something lacking in the religious program. Instead of condemning the student and bewailing his lack of interest in religion, religious leaders are now beginning to look at their own programs, and they admit that it would be expecting too much to ask any intelligent student to become interested in what has often been offered in colleges under the name of religion. Critical religious thinking is now realizing that it has failed to keep pace with progress in other fields, that, while it preaches and rails against materialism, the organized church itself is a most material entity, and that, for college students at least, religion has to mean more than a series of lessons that may be learned to insure eternal salvation.

These are days of stress. College students are concerned with life and its meaning. They are interested in the fascinating histories of different religions. They are concerned with the conflicting philosophies of different religions. They are often in earnest search of a meaning for life, for a faith. But they want a faith that is more than a piece of tinsel. They want a faith that is more than a sop for the neurotic. They want a faith that will welcome criticism and will not fall back on outworn dogma. The need expressed fifteen years ago by Lloyd-Jones and Smith<sup>16</sup> is still very much a need. They stated at that time that there was a need for

. . . reappraising and reaffirming the intellectual and philosophical bases of religion, for emphasizing the relation of religion to ethical action . . . for emphasizing the place of religion in government, citizenship and education, and for worship and disciplines expressive of new concepts and new social practices in religion.

This need exists as much today as it did when these words were written.

## THE RELIGIOUS PROGRAM

Religion has been taught through the centuries by indoctrination, and, in many colleges throughout the land today, indoctrination would still appear to be the chief means of teaching religion, if religion can be "taught." A religious but intellectually curious scholar often finds in a college a program of higher education that is out to seek the truth and, at

<sup>16</sup> Lloyd-Jones and Smith, *op. cit.*, pp. 222-223.



the same time, finds a religious program that assumes that it has the truth already in its possession. A scholar will probably rebel at such a religious program and drift away from it. Another student whose religion has been a matter of indoctrination may desert religion entirely when he learns scientific truths that he feels contradict religious teachings. He may, on the other hand, become the intolerant and fearful type of individual who aggressively refuses to accept anything that tends to question the different aspects of his faith.

In an institution of higher learning religion should be able to stand on its own feet and take honest criticism. The scholar is not usually a person who can be too happy with any religion that must stand on nothing more than dogma and refuses to accept what has been proved to be true. There is enough in the way of intolerant religious indoctrination without adding the college religious program to it. The religious program should aid the student in finding his way of life, but it should not hand it to him already made up.

There is, of course, dogma in any religion based on a faith more than on a science, and surely no religion is based on scientific truth. Any director of a religious program will probably have his share of dogma and his share of "truths" which are accepted only by his faith. This creates little difficulty in a denominational college where practically all the students will share the same faith and the same set of truths. They can fairly effectively ignore the vast majority of the people who share a different set of truths. When this divergence of opinion is to be found in the college, the director and the students who share his faith can hardly ignore the probable majority of the students and the faculty who do not. This is one of the great strengths of a nondenominational institution whose students and faculty represent many faiths. In such an institution it is extremely difficult to be dogmatic, whereas one's dogmatism may be accepted without question in a denominational college. In the nondenominational institution the director must be careful to have as his assistants faculty and students who represent the different faiths to be found in the institution, so that there may be a general religious program acceptable to all and specific programs that may be for one particular denominational group.

Every institution must build its own religious program around the needs of its students and the philosophy of the institution, but there are some religious services common to nearly every religious program. As with every personnel service, the students themselves should play a vital role in the organization and administration of the various services that make up the religious program. This is particularly so in a nondenominational or interdenominational institution, where scores of different faiths may be represented. If students of various faiths operate the different religious



activities there is less likelihood that any one religious group will take over and dominate the entire program.

The services discussed below, should, as Lloyd-Jones and Smith<sup>17</sup> suggested, provide opportunity for students to enjoy the fellowship of those who have religious values, to worship and meditate, to discuss value concepts with interested contemporaries and with thoughtful adults, to participate in religious activity, expression, and leadership, to solve individual religious problems individually if desired, and to learn about different systems, principles, and philosophies of religion. Another goal, one suggested many years ago by Lampe,<sup>18</sup> is to provide the opportunity so that each student may study religion in a thoroughgoing way.

1. *The chapel.* One of the most traditional means of providing religious services is by means of the chapel, but in too many colleges chapel does nothing for either higher education or religion. A sharp distinction should be made between chapel and assemblies, but in many institutions it is difficult to distinguish one from the other. The chapel is not the place for the reading of bulletins and announcements from the administration, and the whipping up of enthusiasm for coming college events. It is a place for worship, a place for quiet meditation, a place where one may receive inspiration, and where one may learn more about religion and religions. There is a much greater likelihood of a differentiation between chapel and assemblies when chapel is held in a church, or in a room which resembles the interior of a church, rather than in an ordinary classroom or in an auditorium. While a student might drop into a real chapel for a few minutes of quiet meditation and prayer, he would hardly do so in an auditorium which was used for such activities as dancing and debating, or where there was a continual flow of chattering students. The atmosphere and the setting should be conducive to worship, and the chapel should be a place where the student can come at any time. If this cannot be arranged on the college campus it might be better to attempt to make arrangements with a community church, rather than to use a classroom or an auditorium as a chapel.

Traditionally, chapel, like most other college services, was compulsory, and students had no alternative but to sit through what was too often a meaningless experience. Compulsory chapel was abolished at Harvard about seventy years ago, and the increasing number of secular state institutions and private interdenominational institutions have made compulsory chapel less possible and less desirable. Some denominational institutions have compulsory chapel for those students whose faith is the same as that of the college church, but voluntary for all others. In an interdenom-

<sup>17</sup> Lloyd-Jones and Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 227.

<sup>18</sup> Lampe, M. Willard, in Towner (ed.), *op. cit.*, p. 128.

inational institution where the students represent many faiths there would obviously be even less point in forcing all students to attend chapel. Some will say that if the student is not mature enough to attend chapel voluntarily then it will at least be better to expose him to chapel programs as an unwilling participant rather than not at all. On the other hand, if religion is to be of any value, it must be something that has a deep personal meaning and a personal significance. The learning experience that goes on in a compulsory class is little enough, and it would seem to be very likely that the learning that would go on in a compulsory chapel attendance would be even less. If we are to adopt the attitude that the religious program should help the student to see himself more accurately, and to build a solid philosophy of life, we can hardly accept compulsion in chapel attendance. Those students for whom the chapel has some meaning will attend, and there is no reason to force attendance on those for whom the chapel means nothing. In addition, chapel attendance, when voluntary, gives some indication of whether or not it is reaching the students, and there is more likelihood of a continuing critical appraisal of what is being experienced.

A little more than a decade ago a study <sup>19</sup> showed that a little over half of all the institutions accredited by the Association of American Universities that had chapel service made attendance compulsory. In all the accredited institutions 20 per cent had voluntary chapel attendance, 32 per cent had no chapel services whatever, and 48 per cent required attendance at chapel. There is no indication here, of course, of the extent to which many of these "chapels" were more than a handy place to make announcements.

Quality in the chapel program is more important than quantity. In an interdenominational college the chapel program must be one that will offend no student, but be acceptable, although not necessarily interesting, to all students. To be sure of this the religious director must see that the committee or group planning the chapel programs is made up of students and faculty representing the different faiths among the student body. Speakers representing different religions should not appear on chapel programs if they are to attempt to sell their religion to the students. They should be good speakers, and they should be tolerant men who are strong enough in their own faith so that they can help the students to understand and to appreciate their faith. They do not attempt to win converts.

There is no reason why the chapel program cannot be almost completely planned and operated by students with the assistance of the director or some other religious workers. The biggest task of the director will probably be to see that no one religious point of view begins to dom-

<sup>19</sup> Cuninggim, Merrimon, *The College Seeks Religion*, New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1947, p. 136.

inate the program, and that the emphasis is on understanding and appreciation of others, rather than on the indoctrination and propagation of one faith. The students planning the program should represent a cross-sampling of the faiths of the student body. Students will have a more intimate knowledge of what students want and what students need. There will be less likelihood of any feeling of compulsion when the student body as a whole knows that the program is planned by students for students. Student participation will increase the likelihood of an increasing fellowship between those who do not have religious values and those who do. It will increase the general participation in religious activities, and it will help more students to feel that there may be something of value in meditation and prayer. It will, in the long run, increase the possibility that some students may be helped to find the way of life that is right for them.

2. *Religious organizations.* Religious experiences may be found in denominational clubs or in nondenominational organizations with a religious emphasis. Denominational clubs are to be found in most secular colleges, and they could be sponsored in practically any secular college if the students so desired and if there was any sort of religious leadership. In too many institutions, however, denominational clubs are rather weak organizations that attract few students despite the exhortations from the various churches that sponsor them. One reason for this, certainly, is the type of program that the clubs offer, which often seems to aim at separating the students and attempting to convince them of the accuracy of their beliefs and the inaccuracy of all other beliefs. It would seem to be highly desirable that, if the philosophy of the institution embraces tolerance and a belief in the equality of man, it should do what it can to see that denominational clubs also emphasize brotherhood and equality rather than superiority and separation. Newman Clubs should have non-Catholic speakers and non-Catholic students in for discussions; Hillel Clubs should make sure that their meetings are not limited to Jewish students; and the various Protestant clubs should aim to have Jewish and Catholic students at their meetings. There are obvious differences. They should be understood so that they can be accepted and respected.

The influence of interdenominational organizations with a religious emphasis, such as the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A., is probably not so great on the campus of secular colleges as once was the case, but such organizations do continue to play an important part in the thinking of many students. They should be considered with other religious clubs and given the same rights and privileges, and be expected to assume the same responsibilities.

There is no reason why different religious organizations cannot get together to sponsor religious conferences, discussions, and seminars. A higher education is a valueless experience if it does nothing to increase in one the feeling of the brotherhood of man, and religious clubs can set an ex-



ample by practicing this brotherhood instead of building higher fences around their own groups. It would be a splendid thing to give all students an opportunity to see Jews, Catholics, and Protestants discussing supposedly controversial issues in a spirit of harmony and good fellowship, rather than futilely trying to convince each other of the righteousness of their own ways and the errors of those of the other fellow; to see such students accepting each other's differences and respecting the right of each one to have a different point of view; to see students who can differ in their religious beliefs and still be fast friends. If denominational clubs could do this, they would indeed be well worth while. There is enough of bigotry and narrowness in the world. Surely there should be none of it in higher education.

3. *Courses in religion.* No one would deny that religion has played an important part, and continues to play an important part in the history of the human race. There may be some students who feel that it has played a negative role, but even they will admit that it has played an important role. If one of the objectives of higher education is to study the development of the human race, it can hardly do so accurately while ignoring the various great religions of the world. Courses in religion should be on a par with other subjects taught, and the people who teach them should rank with others, not only at the top of the professorial ladder, but also at the top as teachers and as scholars. Every institution of higher learning should have various courses on such subjects as religious philosophy, religious history, comparative religion, great religious leaders, great religious teachings, and so on.

Nowhere in any of these courses should there even be an attempt to line up the rights against the wrongs. A church may feel that one of its tasks is to show that it is right and that all other churches are wrong; but the purpose of a study of Judaism in a college is not to prove that it is superior to Christianity and that it has the eternal answers that cannot be provided by Christianity, any more than it is to convert the Christian students to Judaism. It is, instead, to give all students, Jews and non-Jews, an understanding and an appreciation of the Jewish religion and the Jewish faith. If the faith of the non-Jewish students is undermined in this process then it is, indeed, a feeble faith that will not be missed. If a faith is worth having, it should be strengthened and deepened and become infinitely more important by the growth of the understanding and the appreciation of the beliefs of others.

Religion is a controversial issue, but it is controversial only because of the immaturity and the inability of man to live by his own religion. Religion can be rational, and it can be taught in a rational and intellectual manner. Whether faith is rational is another matter, and it is extremely difficult to present a faith in an intellectual manner. Thus one may with



profit study the Catholic religion, but one cannot *feel* the Catholic faith from a non-Catholic teacher. A faith can hardly be a faith if it must scientifically defend itself. There is no doubt that the religious teacher should rate at the top in the matter of emotional and intellectual maturity, and, if he is a mature and a stable individual, there is no reason why religious courses cannot be taught as any other courses are taught. If a faculty member is not an extremely stable and balanced individual, he should not teach religious courses to students who will represent many faiths. This is particularly important because many students may be religiously immature individuals who cannot accept any sort of negative statement about their religion even though there may be no historical doubt about its accuracy. The instructor should be aware of the conflicts that might arise in the minds of some students, and he should be secure enough in his own beliefs to withstand the attacks of those who react aggressively when they feel that they are being threatened.

While a religiously mature Lutheran may not be biased *against* other religions, he almost certainly will be somewhat biased *toward* his own religion. He will understand his own bias, and he will understand that non-Lutherans will not be able to *feel* as he feels toward his religion. For them, it will be another religion. For him it will be *the* faith. He will understand this, and if his students are mature, although certainly some will not be, then they will understand it too. Thus a student might come to understand and appreciate Calvinism as a religion, regardless of the religion of the instructor, but he cannot get at the feeling of the faith of Calvinism unless he listens to and comes to understand a Calvinist.

There might be some disagreement on this point, but it would seem to the author that one cannot get close to complete appreciation unless one goes beyond the intellectual and gets into the realm of emotion and feeling—and faith. The whole education of every American student should include at least some contact with the faith of Catholicism, the faith of Protestantism, and the faith of Judaism, and it can only come from those who believe with their hearts as well as with their minds. If this proves to be too much of a shocking experience for the student, then his church may have provided him with a structured religion, but it has not given him a faith that is worthy of the name. There are few courses that can offer the personal challenge that may be found in religious courses. Here the maturity of the student is put to the test, and the immature and the insecure student will soon stand out. The religious instructor needs to be a combination of a religious scholar, a psychologist, and a teacher. Many students may feel the need for counseling after having taken courses in religion that have shaken what they previously had taken for granted as a faith. Now they wonder, and, as they grope around for answers, they may begin to see that a faith, like a philosophy of life, is not a cloak that

can be casually draped over one's shoulders and passed from one person to another. They begin to see that they had a religion without a faith.

Courses in religion, then, should be taught, if for no other reason than that it is ridiculous to have a higher education which pointedly omits a most important part of one's living. They should be experienced intellectually by the student, and they should be subject to the same sort of scrutiny as any other course. Religion should be studied critically and analytically, but this is not enough. There should also be some attempt to have the student feel and appreciate the faith of various religions, for without this there cannot be a true appreciation or a true understanding.

## RELIGIOUS COUNSELING

Every instructor should be a student of psychology, but the religious instructor and the religious worker are in even greater need of the psychological knowledge, the skills and the techniques, and the mature and balanced attitude that go to make the good counselor; for, as subject matter, religion is a far more violent reagent than is algebra or ancient history or English, and a religious discussion is very likely to stir many students so that they want to react aggressively. It is more likely to put a student into a counseling frame of reference, to make him feel sharply the need for help in his planning of a way of living.

The procedure to be followed in counseling a student who is disturbed over a religious problem need be no different from that used when counseling one who has any other form of personal difficulty that is emotional rather than intellectual in nature. What makes counseling in the field of religion somewhat unique, however, is that seldom are religious difficulties ones that can be solved rationally and intellectually. Quite frequently a completely intellectual noncounseling approach may be used effectively with a student who has a problem in course selection or in the choice of a job. The vast majority of students who come in to talk about difficulties that are religiously oriented, however, are in need of therapy rather than intellectual information and advice. Take, for example, the student who feels that the discussion has been unfair, and that what has been discussed in class is biased and untrue; or the student who says that the class discussion has made him wonder if his own faith is of any value; or the student who feels that classes in religion cause a lot of trouble and people should not talk about such things in class; or the student who feels that he must come in and show the instructor the error of his ways.

The religious instructor who is a mature and balanced individual will almost certainly have many students who will want to come in and talk things over with him. Some may want nothing more than an intellectual "talking things over," but most of the students who will come in will have

a problem, and, if the problem has a religious orientation, it will not likely be rational. The religious worker should be able to function as a counselor for such individuals, since, obviously, he could hardly refer everyone who wants to talk over a religious difficulty to a counseling center. Occasionally, of course, he will have extremely disturbed individuals whose problems are such that they should be referred to the counseling center for more extensive diagnosis and therapy.

The religious worker who will have students of all religious faiths come to him to talk about their difficulties is obviously a person who must have impressed the students with his own broad and acceptant views in the matter of religion. Students of a different religion will seldom come for answers to questions dealing with the dogma and the teachings of their own religion, since they will know that one of another faith could hardly answer such questions. The fact that they do come would usually indicate that they do not want intellectual and formalized answers to religious questions, but that they want to talk about their own religious problems. In some cases the student is in need of specific answers that can be supplied only by a clergyman of his own faith, and in such cases the student should be referred to a suitable person. In more cases than not, however, if the student does want such answers and, often, reassurance, he will go to one of his own faith rather than go to the instructor or to the religious worker of a different or unknown faith.

The effect of the counselor's own religion on the success of the counseling process is a debatable question. Certainly, if the counselor is a religiously mature person, the religious beliefs of the student are of interest to him only in a professional way. The student, however, may not be a religiously mature person, and the religion of the counselor may be very important as far as he is concerned. For example, a student who is beginning to feel disturbed about his anti-Semitic feelings would be unlikely to talk freely to a counselor who he knew was Jewish. He would likely be defensive, either in an aggressive manner or in one profusely apologetic. The religious worker will be keenly aware that his religious beliefs may affect the attitudes of some of his students. It may be that some disturbed students will need to be referred, since the counselor is ineffective because of what the student feels are religious barriers.

In some theological circles reference has been made to "God-centered therapy,"<sup>20</sup> and a question that has been raised concerns the extent to which client-centered therapy can be Christian. While many feel that the process of client-centered therapy has much in common with the practice of Christianity, there are also those who feel that it is impossible to reconcile the two, since, in order to be Christian, therapy must be God-

<sup>20</sup> Arbuckle, Dugald S., "Therapy Is for All," *Journal of Pastoral Care*, 5:34-39, Winter, 1952.



centered, and client-centered therapy is self-centered rather than God-centered.

The first problem in any consideration of this issue is the matter of an identification of God. If God is the God of the Old Testament, the God of vengeance, then it is true that it is difficult to see how client-centered therapy could be God-centered, although it could still be client-centered. Certainly this God of old was one who tossed his thunderbolts about with abandon, one who seemingly tried to force and frighten his people into being good, one who usually saw the evil in man, and one who, in refusing to accept man, made it impossible for that man to develop the good to the point where it would overshadow the bad. A later version of God, however, was of a God of love, an understanding and accepted God, a God whose Son said, "forgive them, for they know not what they do. . . ." Which God do we mean when we refer to God-centered therapy? If our God is judgmental, vengeful, and intolerant, then client-centered therapy cannot be God-centered whether we be Christian, Jew, or Mohammedan. If, on the other hand, our God is loving, tolerant, and serene, then it may be that in some way a part of Him may enter into us so that the need for our egoism will gradually disappear. In its place will come a true concern for the welfare of others. A person who has undergone such an experience does not become a fearful Christian, who is being frightened into heaven, but rather a healthy as well as a good man. He is a tolerant Christian, who believes that goodness is not limited to Christians alone.

The student-centered approach in education does not mean yielding to the student's will, but it does mean that the teacher is sensible enough to recognize the student's needs. He recognizes that the needs are there, and he understands the futility of repression. The child-centered teacher recognizes essential values far more honestly than does the traditional teacher, but he is understanding enough to see the pointlessness of teaching or preaching about values to a disturbed child. The honesty that is taught by a dishonest teacher or parent can only breed dishonesty and cynicism; the honesty that is lived by a teacher or a parent will be rich and meaningful and tangible.

Being nonmoralistic in the counseling process does not mean that one is not concerned with moral values; being nondisciplinary does not mean that one does not believe in self-discipline; being acceptant does not mean that one must believe what he accepts. But the evidence tends to show that we do not improve the state of morals by preaching; that we do not create better citizens by savage punishments; that we do not replace the evil in the mind by refusing to accept it.

The egoism of the neurotic mind is caused by, and often is an aggressive defense against, real pressures. In a counseling session such a person is,



sometimes for the first time in his life, in a situation where there is no need for hostility and aggression. The very acceptance of his egoism diminishes his need to be self-centered. We do not come to have concern for others by having others show no concern for us. The acceptance of the negative feelings and the honest attempt of the therapist to get at the internal frame of reference, so that he may go along with and, to some extent at least, feel with the client—this surely is Christian living as much as it is client-centered therapy. So too is the acceptance of our brother as he is, with our goal being the greater development of his capacity for good, rather than his conversion to our way of thinking and living.

As soon as one refers to God-centered therapy we get into the realm of interpretation and conjecture. Exactly what "surrendering one's will to God" means depends on the individual. It is doubtful whether there would be agreement among theologians about this, let alone among all those who call themselves Christians, Jews, or Mohammedans. For some people "surrendering to God's will" and "yielding to the infinite" would mean no more than a surrender to a group of human beings who say that they have been chosen to represent God, or a surrender to one's own selfish desires, or even a complete withdrawal into a vague, shadowy world of unreality.

The following points might be worth some consideration in any discussion of the extent to which client-centered therapy *can* be God-centered therapy, and the extent to which it *should* be God-centered therapy:

1. There is a world of difference between "client-centered" and "self-centered." The client-centered approach is the approach of the counselor to the client. The attitude of the counselor is the attitude of one who has achieved an inner status such that there is no longer a driving need to be concerned only with the self. The empathic relationship which exists between client and counselor may help the client to see his own self-centered attitude, and to come to develop for himself the selfless attitudes of the counselor.

While the neurotic individual will almost certainly be self-centered, he does not become less self-centered by having his defects pointed out to him. A goal of client therapy is the achievement of the true extension of the self, and no person can achieve this degree of maturity if he is overcome by his own feelings of worthlessness. In keeping with the idea of the brotherhood of man, the therapist accepts and understands. In such a climate the individual may come to grow beyond the narrow self-concern of the egoist, and come to have true concern for others.

2. The reflection of feeling is sometimes considered to be the only task of the client-centered therapist. There is much more than this, although this in itself is by no means the simple task often pictured. The extent to which one can reflect real feeling may be measured by the extent to which one can feel with the client as he talks. Repetition of the intellectual con-

tent of a statement is by no means reflection of feeling, although the student in training to be a counselor sometimes finds it difficult to separate the two.

In addition to reflecting what is felt rather than what is said, the counselor must aid the client to clarify his jumbled thoughts. This means that he must often be able to recognize a subtle ambivalence in the client's statements and to hold it up so that it may be seen more clearly. If a clash of feeling cannot be recognized by the counselor, it is unlikely that he will be able to help the client to solve his difficulties.

The most difficult task, however, is one which measures both the skill and the personality of the counselor. The understanding of the client's frame of reference so that one can see him to some extent as he sees himself, rather than viewing him from the counselor's own frame of reference, is more than a skill learned in a few months. The dictatorial individual, whose own feelings are aggressive rather than acceptant, may verbally go along with the client, but it will be difficult for him to feel with the client. We cannot be diagnosing the client's ailments from our external frame of reference and, at the same time, be the mirror for his own feelings so that he can see himself more accurately. If a diagnostic and critical frame of reference is a basic part of our personal make-up, it will probably be more difficult to follow along with the client's feelings than if we practice the Christian teaching of turning the other cheek and giving our shirt when someone takes our coat.

Psychology students sometimes become so diagnostically minded that they find it extremely difficult even to get close to the client's frame of reference. As service agents they are quite ineffective, even though their clinical diagnosis may be quite accurate. Teachers and clergymen are service personnel rather than diagnosticians, and it may be that they would enhance their service capacity by an attempt to reduce their diagnostic tendencies. Everyone can make a simple check of his own frame of reference as he listens to someone talking about his problems. Do we see certain implications in his statements? Do we categorize him into a certain type? Do we decide as he talks what his problem may be and what he should do about it? Do we feel impatient with his lack of clarity and his confusion over a simple problem? Do we become a bit impatient to get our solution over to him so that he may take some action? Or, instead, do we give ourselves completely to striving to see the problem as he sees it, to feel as he feels, to move with him at his own pace, and so to come to establish a close relationship of empathic understanding?

3. Most therapists will probably agree that, if a child has not had a relationship of love and understanding with his parents, at a later date a therapist may have to supply the understanding without the emotional involvement of the parent. We enter the theological arena, however, when we say that an individual has been relieved of his self-centeredness because he

is now led by God and need no longer bear the burden alone. If the increase in unselfish action and the decrease of selfishness are indicative of infiltration by God, then this infiltration is part of a therapeutic process. On the other hand, some may feel that the truly stable Christian is not one who has thrown his burdens onto the shoulders of God, but rather one who has gathered his strength so that he may accept his own responsibilities and carry his own load. Thousands of troubled individuals who have found themselves and thus found security, through the process of therapy, might not agree that they were now being led by God.

4. No client-centered therapist believes that he has to abandon all his own values in order to function effectively as a counselor. He does believe, however, that most of the values by which we live are man-made, that values differ sharply in different cultures, and that even in the same culture there is little agreement on the question of the exact values by which we should live. The more dogmatic the individual is in the belief that his values are the only values, the more likely it is that he will see others only through his own rigid and unyielding frame of reference. It will be extremely difficult for such an individual, acting as a counselor, to feel with a client as he expresses ideas and thoughts that are completely counter to those of the counselor. The white Christian who *knows* that Christianity is the only belief, as definitely as he *knows* that Negroes are members of an inferior race, will find it difficult to accept and to understand the non-Christian Negro who is voicing his negative feelings toward the Caucasian race in general and white Christians in particular. The counselor may not be an oblong blur, but neither is he an individual, Christian or otherwise, who is so overcome by the righteousness of his own cause that his sole mission in life is to convert others to his way of thinking.

5. The self does not exist as a total entity apart from others, but this cannot be taken as an indication that one is incapable of evaluating and determining the relationship of the self to others. There is a very definite dynamic relationship built up between the client-centered counselor and the client. The acceptance and permissiveness of the counselor should not be confused with passivity. The counselor does help the client to understand the self and its relationship to others. He does not, however, help from *without* by diagnostic and directive means, but rather from *within* by his capacity to understand and to feel with the client as he moves along through his problems. This experience, unique in the lives of most of us, may be the most effective method of helping an individual to see the self as it really is and to accept the relationship of the self to others. This acceptance of the self, and all its relationships, is basic if there is to be any possibility of relearning to relive. It is an empathic, rather than an emotional or intellectual, relationship that enables the client eventually to come to this acceptance.



6. The client soon comes to feel and to know that the therapist cares for him and that he has concern for his welfare. The feeling that one is understood, however, is not the same as the feeling that one is forgiven. The counselor who feels that it is within his power and within his province either to forgive or condemn an individual who has found a means of escape through such an experience as heavy drinking must automatically place himself above that individual. The fact that we see ourselves in a superior position means that it will be extremely difficult to understand and impossible to accept the client as he is. One may question the helpfulness of the counselor who believes that he has been elevated to the status of one who may condemn or forgive. We may also question him from the viewpoint of professional ethics, since surely no professional counselor believes that either condemning or forgiving are techniques that belong in the therapeutic process. We may question such a counselor further from the viewpoint of Christian ethics, since humility is more of a Christian trait than is condemnation. Such a counselor may even feel that tolerance is the tolerating of one who is different.

Even if the counselor could forgive, what part does this process of forgiving play in the gaining of insight? The individual who gains true insight will have no need to feel that the counselor has forgiven him for his sins. Through the gaining of insight, the alcoholic client will be able to accept his drinking and see it as a necessary part of his present make-up. He may then be able to change so that the drinking will no longer be necessary, or he may be able to come to accept his difficulties without running away. The counseling relationship will tell him that the counselor is one who feels and understands and accepts, and in that relationship there is no place for either forgiving or condemning. If the counselor never condemns, what is there for *him* to forgive?

7. The free will that may be considered as the goal of therapy is obviously not willfulness any more than freedom is license. It is rather the freedom that comes to one who is so relieved of pressures that at last he can be honest about himself, at last be strong enough to see himself and to accept himself for what he is. Such a person is truly free. He has achieved an inner peace, so that he can look outward and broaden his horizons to include others. His concern for the self is replaced by a much greater concern for others. If this is surrender to God's will rather than free will, well and good!

8. Although there is unanimous agreement that goals should not be chosen by the counselor, a certain amount of honest skepticism will greet the statement that goals should not be chosen by the client but will be revealed to him by God. This, however, like "surrender to God's will," may be a matter of semantics more than anything else. It matters little if one feels that it is the process of revelation rather than the process of



therapy that helps the individual to become aware of the choices that lie ahead, and that makes him increasingly capable of making choices that are best for him and for his fellow man. The "revelation of God," however, implies the doing by someone else and the continued dependence on others rather than increasing confidence in one's own strength. It appears to de-emphasize self-determination as a goal of therapy, and puts the desired end result into the realm of the mysterious and the unknown. It does sometimes happen, too, that a revelation may indicate nothing more than that the client is on another futile search for the rainbow's end. The "revelations" of many clients would be described by the clinician as hallucinations strictly man-made rather than godly creations.

Therapy is for all, including those who call themselves the godless, as well as for the majority of mankind who do not see Christ as Christians see him. Whether client-centered therapy can be considered as God-centered would seem to depend on the concept of God and on the understanding of what the process of therapy entails. If God is the stern parent who punishes so that His children may see the light, then client-centered therapy cannot be considered as God-centered therapy. On the other hand, there are millions of happy people, Christians and non-Christians, who feel that they too know God, but One who is a much gentler, a much more loving, a much humbler, and a much more stable God. For people who feel that they have lived with such a God, the process of client-centered therapy is very much akin to the process by means of which we may come to live a more godly life.

### THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE RELIGIOUS PROGRAM

There is little doubt in the minds of personnel workers as to the necessity and the worth of a good campus religious program, but the type of program that is best for a particular institution is another matter. There can be no standard type of program for colleges generally, and it is even more impossible and more undesirable to attempt to standardize any type of religious program. There would be an obvious difference between the religious services in a church institution, where the entire educational program is religiously oriented with the emphasis on one particular denomination, and a secular institution in which scores of faiths are represented. In such an institution the educational program might possibly be religiously oriented, but it could not be denominationally oriented. It is extremely difficult to have the major emphasis on "religion" when there are numerous clashing viewpoints represented on the campus. Thus the basic purpose of the religious program in one institution might be to propagate the faith, but when many faiths are represented there can hardly be an institutional attempt to propagate any one of them.

Another obvious difference would be in the control of the program. In any church college the entire personnel program is controlled and directed by the church, and the ends to be achieved are decided by the church. In a secular institution, on the other hand, the religious program will usually be a part of the total educational offering to be determined by the administration of the institution. If the control is vested in the administration, a policy can be made to fit the peculiar needs of the institution, and it is more likely that those needs will be met than if there is one standard national program. On the other hand, it is to be assumed that in a large university, where there may be Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant chaplains to head up their respective programs, the total religious program would be under the chief personnel officer, while each chaplain would call on the resources of his particular church to help him in his work. The chief personnel officer, however, would be responsible for the total program, and it would be assumed that he would take some action if the "religious" program of any one group became little more than a series of sessions in which all other religions were condemned. Other questions that might face the personnel officer would be such things as the distribution of highly colored literature, the bringing in of intolerant speakers, and the extent to which the different groups should intermingle so that they can share each other's religious views and beliefs.

Many large interdenominational institutions maintain a school of theology and this is an obvious factor in the planning and the administration of the religious program. If the school of theology trains ministers for the Methodist Church, then the chances are that the Methodist Church will have a greater influence on the religious program than will any other church. While it would be quite possible to have no particular connection between the school of theology and the religious program, there will almost certainly be a close liaison between the leaders of the religious program and the leaders of the theological school. In such cases, however, it would be unfortunate if the religious program should become a denominational program, since the total number of students belonging to the same denomination would probably be outnumbered by many other religious groups. Again, it is important to note that in an interdenominational institution the program must be a religious program acceptable at least to Jews and Catholics, as well as to the numerous different Protestant faiths. Any sort of denominational control will almost certainly emphasize the distinctions between denominations, usually to the detriment of all except the dominant one.

If the religious program is to be successful, it has to be a part of the total personnel program, and it has to be integrated with it. Needless to say, the religious program cannot be too effective if it does not have a leader or a director. A study by Cuninggim<sup>21</sup> indicated that only 22 per cent of 263

<sup>21</sup> Cuninggim, *op. cit.*, pp. 159-161.

institutions investigated had religious leaders for their religious programs. This leader, missing in so many institutions, might be a chaplain, or a rector, or a director of religious activities. Such a person should be a professionally trained religious worker as well as a professionally trained personnel administrator. Essential also would be a training in psychology, in group techniques, and in counseling. The successful religious director will have to know how to work effectively with the students, the faculty, the administration, and the community.

The appointment of a director for a religious program could be taken to mean that the administration was at least aware of the need for a religious program. It would not necessarily be an indication that the students for whom the program is intended had any feeling of such a need. An obvious first step for such a director would be to determine what was offered in the way of religious services as well as what was needed. The needs would be influenced strongly by the community and by the number and the strength of the different religions represented among the students. It would be necessary to bring in student help if an accurate indication of their need was to be determined, and the students, as in other phases of the personnel program, not only should have an important voice in the determining of the program, but they should have an equally important voice in the development and the direction of the program.

Where numerous denominations are represented, integration and coordination become an important and a difficult problem. The religious needs of several thousand Jewish students in a large university obviously cannot be completely met by a Methodist director of religious activities, any more than can the needs of several thousand Catholic students. Working with the director there must be assistant religious workers of different religions who can represent and more completely understand the religious difficulties that may disturb students of their faith. All religious workers must also realize that they work together in a religious program for the benefit of all students. They cannot work alone with the students of their faith, at cross purposes with other religious groups, if the objectives of the religious program are to be achieved. This cooperation is not always easy, since there are many religious workers in interdenominational colleges who feel that their main task is to prevent their little group of students from being negatively affected by the different beliefs of other students. They may feel that their sole purpose is the defense and the propagation of their faith. Such individuals will do little to make the religious program a series of experiences that will broaden the student's horizon beyond the narrow dogma and help him to be more appreciative of the faiths of others—even as this program strengthens his own.

There is always the danger, as in other student-personnel services, that the director will take his title too literally, and take the program over completely. The program is for the students, and they should take the initiative



in determining the religious needs on the campus and the ways in which these needs may be met. They should plan and direct programs. They should head and run the various religious committees and clubs that they may feel are needed. The leader and his assistants should be available for counsel and help, but they should not dominate the program. The philosophy of the religious program will be tied up with the philosophy of the institution, but obviously the philosophy of many students will be quite alien to that of the institution. When students are well represented in the planning and direction of the religious program there will be less likelihood that they will feel that the purpose of the program is to weaken their own religion and to convert them to another faith. If students are given the opportunities to undergo various experiences, with a certain amount of guidance and with assistance available, if it is needed, they will be more likely to arrive at a philosophy of the good life particularly their own, but at the same time one that will find acceptance among good men the world over. If the religious program gives the students a chance to see something of a better way of truly living the good life, it will have achieved a basic objective. The director of the religious program, however, must have enough faith in the program and in the students to know and to feel that each student can evolve a philosophy that will be good for him and for his fellow man.

This does not mean, of course, that there is no need for leadership. There is a very definite need for professional leadership that will not only be able to understand the religious needs and difficulties of the students, but will also be able to see and understand the experiences that will help the student to satisfy his needs and solve his problems. Much of the leadership will be found, as has been indicated, among the student body, but there are obviously many other personnel workers in every college who would be happy to aid in the development of a living and dynamic and meaningful religious program.

The financing of the religious program is another very materialistic problem that must be faced by the religious director. If religion is considered to be on a level with other personnel services, it may be given a budget commensurate with its importance. But it is often even more difficult for a religious program to justify its existence than it is for other personnel services. The religious program, like other personnel services, may find itself in a difficult position if a hardheaded businessman wants the facts and figures to justify the expenditure of certain funds. The most difficult task of the program director may be attempting to get the administration to feel the need for an effective religious program, which often cannot justify its existence in a scientifically empirical manner.

The religious program should provide the student with experiences that will give him an understanding and appreciation of the history of religions



and of the philosophies and the principles of religions. It should allow him to enjoy the fellowship of students and faculty who have found some meaning in religion. It should give him an opportunity to participate in various activities that are religiously oriented. It should provide him with an opportunity to worship and to meditate. It should help him to find the answers to individual religious problems and to work out a way for living the good life.

The director of religious activities should make every attempt to see that the program is basically a students' program, that it is integrated with all other student-personnel services, and that it is achieving the aims set up by the personnel services and by the university. As long as an objective of the university is to help the student to learn a good way of life, then dynamic religion cannot be excluded from the campus, since for most students religion is an integral part of a way of life.

## CHAPTER 9 *Health Services*

Among the first personnel services to receive official recognition in colleges and universities were those concerned with the health of the students. Some of the reasons for the early establishment of college health programs, however, could not be described as being indicative of institutional concern over the health of the students. Some health programs were established to protect the institution rather than to protect the student.

Amherst College is generally recognized as the institution pioneering in health services. In 1859, spurred by the death of two senior students, the Board of Trustees of Amherst College decided upon the erection of a building that was to be the beginning of the development of a broad and extensive college health program. The early emphasis was generally on physical education, and it was not until later that college health services took on the responsibility for the preserving of sanitary conditions. Interest in the health of the individual student developed for a variety of reasons. Among these were epidemics that periodically would seriously affect the student body, studies of the reasons for absence from class, the development of college sports programs, the beginning of higher education for women, and evidence from the First World War showing a surprisingly large number of young men who could not be accepted for service because of poor health.

Diehl and Shepard<sup>1</sup> give a comprehensive picture of the development of college health programs. They point out that it was shortly after 1907 that the development of a college health program on the campus of the University of Wisconsin was accelerated by an outbreak of typhoid fever. At the University of California an early study of reasons for absence from class showed that health was a major factor in irregular attendance. Thus the early motivation for the development of a health program at the University of California came because of the interest in improving class attendance rather than the interest in improving student health.

<sup>1</sup> Diehl, Harold S., and Charles E. Shepard, *The Health of College Students*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1939, p. 14.

With the development of sports programs in American colleges it became increasingly necessary to have some form of medical supervision of the participants. Again, the interests of the institution were of primary importance, since not only would an unhealthy player be of little value to his team, but injuries or serious accidents that could have been prevented by better medical care would be a negative form of public relations. In addition, health examinations showed that many apparently healthy athletes suffered from numerous physical defects. The benefits that accrued to the students were strictly secondary, and in many colleges the health activities connected with the athletic program were completely divorced from the rest of the student body. For many years the physical training in the gymnasium, the much despised "P.T.," was the sum total in the way of health services offered to the students.

When Oberlin College in Ohio in 1837 opened the doors of higher education to women, it started one of the most phenomenal phases of higher education in the United States. In addition, however, it brought to the forefront the question of health services for students, since there were grave doubts in the minds of many educators whether the health of women could stand the pace set by their male college colleagues. Although later evidence showed that this was a needless concern and that the females were no more of a medical problem than were the males, nevertheless, the advent of higher education for women added considerable impetus to the development of college health programs.

The physical examinations of hundreds of thousands of soldiers in the First World War brought into sharp focus a fact that was probably known to the medical profession but not understood by college administrators. For the first time in American history statistics dealing with tremendous numbers of men showed that the proportion of physically defective males was far higher than had ever been supposed.

With the development of modern public-health methods the colleges became interested in a healthful college environment and in the protection of the health of the students. It was soon realized that the correction of malnutrition, infected tonsils, latent tuberculosis, carious teeth, and faulty health habits was far more important than the routine pattern of exercises that supposedly kept the students in good health.<sup>2</sup> The correction of these defects was obviously impossible without professional medical personnel and appropriate facilities. Thus physicians became full-time university personnel workers, and infirmaries were established so that their services could be effectively used.

This brief history of the development of the college health program shows that there have been many things that have given impetus to the

<sup>2</sup> *University and College Student Health Services*, Chicago: American Medical Association, Bureau of Medical Economics, 1936.

program, and today we are able to see certain trends as being predominant in the field of student health. Williams made a study of the practices in use in the outstanding health service departments in American colleges and set forth the following trends after an analysis of her data: <sup>3</sup>

1. There is a growing insistence that there be a synthesis of the health agencies which contribute to the mental, social, and physical health of the college population.

2. Counseling and guidance is now considered so vital a part of the college program that most colleges have established special departments or agencies for this purpose.

3. The recognition that an adequate health service serves the mind as well as the health of the body has resulted in special stress on mental hygiene.

4. A planned and organized research program by the health service department is generally recognized as a necessity, if the department is to be scientific and make its contribution to the total educational program.

5. The educational rather than the clinical aspects of the health service program are receiving more attention now than ever before.

6. There is an increasing belief that health service costs should be borne partly by the student and partly by the school. . . .

7. There is an increasing tendency to make the facilities of the college health service available to the faculty and employees.

8. Publicity and orientation of the services rendered to the students, the faculty, the employees and the community are being currently stressed, and indications are that in the future, this phase will receive even more attention.

9. There is a growing recognition of the value and need of adequate health service accounting systems.

10. The scope and range of services rendered by the student health service is multiplying rapidly. . . .

The modern college health program stresses the educational and preventive aspects as much as it does the remedial and curative. It is obvious that emotional and physical defects handicap academic and professional success, and, from a strictly financial point of view, it is clear that a college cannot allow its student health to deteriorate to the point where costly remedial action will be necessary. If, in addition to economic self-concern, the institution is also concerned with the well-being of society, then it is evident that an effective health program is necessary to see that the educational investment is not lost to society.

Different types of colleges require different kinds of health programs. It could hardly be expected that the health programs of large "commuter colleges" such as New York University and Boston University would be the same as those of state institutions in relatively small centers of populations, such as the State College of Washington in Pullman, and the

<sup>3</sup> Williams, Rhea H., "Trends in Student Health Service Programs," *The Journal of Health and Physical Education*, 19:435-436, June, 1948.



University of Idaho in Moscow. Differences are understandable enough, but the lack of health services cannot be excused because the majority of the students live at home. It is hardly valid to assume that the home has adequately cared for the health of the students and that it will continue to do so. The university is equally responsible for the health of every full-time student, whether he remains on the college campus most of the twenty-four hours of the day, or whether he comes to college for classes and then returns to his home or his work.

Regardless of the size or location or type of institution, however, the total college health program may be separated into three distinct branches, the actual health service, a healthful environment, and health instruction. Whereas it is the purpose of the health service program to concern itself with illness and defects, a healthful environment and health instruction may also be considered as an interrelated part of the health service program. These are all personnel services, and they cannot be performed effectively without the services of trained and skilled personnel workers.

The Third National Conference on Health in Colleges has set up objectives for the total health education program and for the health service program. The objectives of the college health program are listed as:<sup>4</sup>

1. To create a healthful environment and atmosphere in which students may develop physically, mentally and socially and in which they may learn to live more happily as health-minded citizens in their personal lives, in their homes, in their communities and as members of a world society
2. To provide means whereby administrators, faculty and all other college employees may be enabled to work together cooperatively for the total health of all
3. To facilitate the practical application of health knowledge to daily living in the medical clinics, the classroom, on the campus, and in the community
4. To safeguard the health of students, faculty, and nonteaching personnel through the prevention of communicable diseases
5. To develop well-adjusted students and graduates who possess information, attitudes, habits, skills and ideals favorable to efficient and healthful lives for themselves, their families, and their communities
6. To assist college students to assume responsibility for their own health, so that they will know when they are in good physical and emotional condition, will recognize deviations from the normal, and will know where and how to seek expert assistance to meet their health needs
7. To provide scientific knowledge through a well-integrated plan of health education, so that students will be able to evaluate pseudoscientific reports and advertising campaigns regarding health and disease nostrums
8. To prevent loss of study time and promote the development of efficiency in pursuing college work by insuring maximal personal and community health

<sup>4</sup> *A Health Program for Colleges*, A Report of the Third National Conference on Health in Colleges, New York: National Tuberculosis Association, 1947, pp. 17-18.

9. To assist students who are moving from their homes to unfamiliar college environment to find competent and adequate medical care when they become ill. . . .

10. To develop a working arrangement among members of the college community to promote a single policy of healthful living on the campus

In the same report <sup>5</sup> the objectives of the college health service are given as:

1. Complete medical examination of each student upon entering the college. . . .

2. Individual conference between student and physicians either directly following the entrance examination or shortly thereafter, to interpret the findings of the examination, to prepare the way for correction of abnormalities which have been disclosed, and to prescribe special programs for those found to be handicapped

3. Arrangement of the students' academic and physical activity program in accordance with his best interests and through cooperation of college authorities and departments concerned with health activities

4. Special medical examinations of students engaging in athletics and of special student groups

5. Subsequent physical examinations which are deemed advisable because of the wishes of the student, the particular type of educational program in which he engages, the findings of previous examinations, or because of other information available to the health service

6. Provision of medical care for emergency and ambulatory types of illness

7. Consultation with specialists in various fields of medicine when desirable

8. Hospitalization of students needing bed care

9. Cooperation with other college departments in providing a healthful environment, including the execution of standard public health practices which are designed to eliminate or control communicable disease

## THE COLLEGE HEALTH SERVICE

1. *The medical examination.* The first health service with which the student has contact is a complete medical examination. The term "medical," or "health," examination is more appropriate than the older "physical" examination. Too frequently, even today, the physical examination notes little other than the more glaring physical defects. A complete medical examination should be concerned with the total health of the individual student. This includes the emotional and the mental as well as the physical health. Nor is it satisfactory to have the student's family doctor give the examination prior to entrance to college. Too frequently this turns out to be little more than a few taps on the chest and an "I've known you since you were born, and there is nothing wrong with you."

The examination should be given by the college physicians, and ideally

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 28-29.

it should be given annually to all students and to all faculty members. In the four years between freshman entrance and senior graduation the health of the student may undergo radical changes. Periodic preventive steps, such as an annual examination, may prevent costly remedial action requiring hospitalized treatment. In addition to the regular medical examination for all students there should be a periodic examination for athletes, particularly for those in sports where there is severe physical strain and the possibility of serious injury to one not in excellent physical condition. If the student is allowed to risk serious injury on the playing field of his college, he should expect the best in the way of preparation for the contest and care in the event that he is injured.

The objectives of the entrance health examination were outlined some years ago by the National Conference on College Hygiene:<sup>6</sup>

1. For the purpose of disqualifying students whose health defects, physical, mental, and social, preclude them from college activity
2. For the purpose of preventing students from carrying a study load which would menace health
3. For the purpose of preventing students from entering into physical activity which would menace health
4. For the purpose of discovering and arranging for appropriate treatment of students with communicable disease
5. For the purpose of discovering physical defects and arranging for their correction, thus preventing disease and future health failure

The Third National Conference has recommended<sup>7</sup> that the health examination should include:

1. Simple vision and audiometer tests
2. Dental examination
3. Examination of respiratory tract with special regard to remediable infection and abnormalities
4. Tuberculosis-case-finding studies made on all students
5. Examination of the cardiovascular system with particular reference to evidence of organic disease, such as valvular damage and heart enlargement
6. A brief review in all instances of the neurological and musculoskeletal systems, and a more complete examination if special health problems are present or if the student is to take part in the athletic program
7. A urine examination for sugar and albumin
8. The correction of remediable defects when the facilities, personnel, and resources are available

The procedure followed in giving the examination is either the "indi-

<sup>6</sup> *Proceedings of the National Conference on College Hygiene*, New York: National Tuberculosis Association, 1931, p. 13.

<sup>7</sup> *A Health Program for Colleges*, pp. 30-31.

vidual" or the "station-to-station" method. The latter method, with the student body being examined by a battery of doctors, is being used more frequently. Whatever the method used, there should be no doubt about the extensiveness of the health examination, since it is obviously basic to an adequate health service. It is also true, however, that no matter how extensive the examination might be, it cannot be of maximum help to the student if he is never given any indication of the results of the examination. Ideally, a record of the medical examination should be forwarded from the health office to the guidance office, and it is the responsibility of the guidance office to see that the results of the health examination are understood by the student.

Actually, however, there is nothing to report to the great majority of the students as a result of their medical examination. In large institutions this means that a tremendous amount of clerical work is performed for nothing. At Boston University a standard form was used for many years, but the clerical load became so great that it was discontinued. A copy of this form is shown in Appendix 27. At the present time a simpler form is forwarded to either the guidance office or the office of the registrar. A copy of this form is shown in Appendix 28.

The examining physicians are the individuals who are best equipped at least to give the student the information revealed by his health examination, but far too often students turn up for an examination, and that is the last they ever hear about it from the health office. A review of the results of the health examination with every student would, of course, create added difficulties, but it is absolutely essential that at least all those students whose medical examination shows certain defects be aware of those defects and have some understanding of remedial procedures to be used. The guidance counselor should also be aware of these physical or mental abnormalities, and his records should contain a copy of any proposed remedial action. The clerical load could be reduced drastically as long as it was understood that no report from the health service to the guidance counselor indicated that no defects were noted in the medical examination. Any defects and remedial action proposed should be known by the guidance officer. This is a most important part of the student's total record. Weekly meetings between counselors and medical representatives help both medical doctors and counselors to see each other's role in the solution of the students' medical problems.

The health office can perform its task more effectively and quickly if it has some record of the student's health history prior to his entrance to college. A health statement form is provided by most institutions to be filled in at home and forwarded to the college prior to the student's entrance. A copy of the form provided for this purpose by Boston University is shown in Appendix 29.



Frequently conflicts arise because of differences between health service examinations and the family physician's examination. The health service may be more impartial in its opinion, but it is also true that the skilled family doctor, through long knowledge of the student, may be able to present a more accurate medical picture than the college physician. A health statement may sometimes be unreliable because of the fear that an adverse record might result in admission being denied. This is particularly so with regard to mental health, and this attitude frequently interferes with an intelligent approach to the student's problems.

The logical place to maintain the major health records is the health office. These records should be constantly kept up-to-date, and periodic contacts should be noted. Hospital records of any serious illness or injury necessitating hospitalization should be transferred to the main health record. It may not be possible or desirable to transfer all such records, but a summary of the progress of the student in the hospital should certainly be recorded. The bare record "hospitalized for six weeks because of a broken leg" tells very little that could be helpful to the guidance officer.

Not only should the guidance officer receive from the health office a summary of the results of the medical examination of at least those students who have medical defects, but he should be kept up-to-date if there should be any change in the student's health status. A standard form could easily be used by the health office so that the guidance office could be kept informed with regard to any change in the health status of the student. This would include a record of hospitalization for illness or injury.

The primary purpose of the health record, like any other record, is the welfare of the student. If the student is to benefit as much as he should from his medical examination and from all other contacts that he may have with the health service he should be made aware of his health assets and liabilities. While the medical officer, as has been indicated, is the logical person to interpret medical data to the student, there is no valid reason why that information should be withheld from the guidance counselor. It is true, of course, that confidential information that is given to the physician as he attends the student should be honored as such, just as is the information that is given to the counselor. The greater part of the information gathered as a result of the medical examination and other contacts that the student may make with the health office, however, is such that it should be in the hands of the guidance officer. It does not differ from the information that may come from any other professional source.

This point of view, however, is not acceptable to all health officers. Reports given at the Third National Conference on Health in Colleges, for example, seemed to view health records as something very special.<sup>8</sup> It was very definitely stated that "Health records are to be considered as 'priv-

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 37.

ileged communications' and access to them by persons other than the attending physician is to be denied except on written permission of the student or his legal guardian."

2. *Clinical and infirmary services.* There is no good reason why the vast majority of colleges cannot at least provide an efficient medical examination for entering students, but the clinical and infirmary services that should be provided may cost more than the total revenue of the whole college. Many colleges could provide far better hospital services than are available at present, but many others are financially limited with regard to these services. In some colleges visited by the author the only form of health service available was a first-aid kit and the help of a faculty member who had studied first aid. More is usually available in the way of health services for those students who live in dormitories. Not too many colleges are bold enough to state that hospital care will be given "as long as needed." Some college catalogues, however, do imply that such care will be given, even though the college has practically nothing in the way of medical facilities and personnel. The medical personnel available in different institutions ranges all the way from a part-time nurse to full-time nurses and medical doctors, including psychiatrists and clinical psychologists. There is a need for facilities for isolation in every institution, but many smaller colleges simply do not have the funds to provide such services.

In a study of thirty-five institutions in 1933, Rogers<sup>9</sup> found that in coeducational institutions with an enrollment below 500, 10 per cent of the colleges employed full-time physicians, and 55 per cent employed part-time physicians. In coeducational institutions with an enrollment between 500 and 1,000 students, 40 per cent employed full-time physicians, and 35 per cent employed part-time physicians. In coeducational institutions with an enrollment between 1,000 and 2,000, 90 per cent employed one or more physicians, and 35 per cent employed full-time physicians. In women's colleges with an enrollment under 500 students, 25 per cent used full-time physicians, and 45 per cent used part-time physicians. In women's colleges with an enrollment over 500 students, all employed physicians, and more than 70 per cent were full-time.

The housing and the equipment of a college health service described as "adequate" by the Third National Conference on Health in Colleges<sup>10</sup> would be regarded by many institutions as an ideal that would not likely be reached. The Conference refers to the need for:

1. A student health service building located as conveniently as possible for student use.

<sup>9</sup> Rogers, J. E., *Student Health Services in Institutions of Higher Education*, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1937, pp. 57-59.

<sup>10</sup> *A Health Program for Colleges*, pp. 35-36.

2. A student infirmary or hospital should be provided when resources are available, preferably in the same building as the health service offices or nearby, designed to be operated according to acceptable hospital standards. It is recommended that from 5 to 20 beds per 1,000 students should be provided, depending on the proportion of day students to resident students and on other pertinent factors.

3. Where bed care of only minor illnesses is to be provided, a recommendation for full compliance with the hospital standards of the American College of Surgeons and the American Hospital Association or the American Medical Association cannot be justified. Where general hospital care is furnished, it is recommended that the minimal standards of these accrediting agencies be met.

4. Whether facilities for bed care are limited or complete, some provision must be made for the isolation of students with acute communicable diseases and for flexibility for increasing this bed capacity during epidemics.

5. Special equipment and facilities should be provided, including X-ray equipment, a basal metabolism machine, an electrocardiograph, physical therapy apparatus, special offices and instruments for refractions, otorhinolaryngologic examination and treatment, and fluoroscopy, and dental equipment when justified.

6. Laboratory space and equipment should be provided in proportion to available staff and the extent of services. When the expense of such installations is not justified because of a limited staff, arrangements for such diagnostic services should be made with a nearby hospital or with private physicians.

It would be absurd, of course, to demand that all colleges meet objectives such as these at this time. Most colleges simply do not have the financial means with which to meet them. Inability to provide for the health needs of the students, however, does not in any way diminish the need, and colleges that cannot even begin to meet such objectives as those indicated by the Third National Conference should at least be aware of the great discrepancy between the health services that they offer and the health needs of their students.

Many colleges are attacking their particular health needs in unique ways. Each individual college must meet its own needs in its own particular way, and it must meet these problems to the best of its ability and with the facilities available. Many colleges cannot assume full financial responsibility for the medical care of their students. Generally, when this is the case, the college attempts to make other arrangements. At the University of Maine,<sup>11</sup> for example, the health service cannot care for students suffering from chronic illnesses, for those requiring surgical treat-

<sup>11</sup> *University of Maine Bulletin*, 1951, p. 18.



ment, or for those in need of the services of specialists. However, there is group accident and illness insurance to cover more serious illness and accidents, and the university recommends that the students participate in this program. A full statement of this optional insurance program is sent to each student during the summer.

Antioch College,<sup>12</sup> a cooperative institution, has a situation that is no doubt common to such colleges. They have the additional responsibility of emergency care for the student while he is on a cooperative job. In this instance the student is allowed up to \$200 in any one academic year for emergency hospitalization while he is away on his cooperative job.

At the University of Arizona<sup>13</sup> house calls are made only in emergency cases. If an illness requires the services of an outside physician (major surgery and some very serious medical conditions), or a consultation is advised, the cost must be borne by the student. Students who are ill are given infirmary care free for a period not to exceed three days each semester. After the third day, a charge of \$3 per day is made. If the type of illness is such that the infirmary cannot adequately care for it, outside hospitalization must be provided at the expense of the student.

The University of Bridgeport<sup>14</sup> offers from twenty-four to forty-eight hours of infirmary care to dormitory students who require bed-rest, isolation, or short-term observation. Parents are notified of illnesses requiring further care, and hospital admissions are arranged for surgical and other emergency cases. Services provided by the University are covered by tuition and dormitory fees. Other medical expenses, including the services of the University physician outside of office hours, are to be met by the student or his family.

Each student at DePauw University<sup>15</sup> is entitled to four days of free hospitalization per semester at the University infirmary. Ordinary drugs and medicines are furnished free, but certain special services, such as X-ray examinations, special drugs, and laboratory tests, are available at a nominal cost. Cases requiring facilities beyond those provided by the health service will be referred to specialists at the expense of the student.

These illustrations are examples of the limitations that must be imposed by different institutions in the complex task of caring for the health of their students.

Health services are usually financed by a special health fee from each student or by a medical appropriation from the institution. Extra service fees are a nuisance, and if health services are available to all, there would appear to be little point in saddling the student with another fee. It is

<sup>12</sup> *Antioch College Bulletin*, 1950-1951, pp. 32-33.

<sup>13</sup> *University of Arizona Record*, 1950-1951, p. 175.

<sup>14</sup> *University of Bridgeport Catalogue*, 1949-1950, pp. 12-13.

<sup>15</sup> *DePauw University Bulletin*, 1948-1949, pp. 117-118.



much better to take this out of the total tuition bill. It is true, of course, that the special fee does emphasize that medical services are available, but it may also create a certain amount of resentment among the less wealthy, but healthier, students who never use the health service.

Every college should at least be frank in its bulletins and indicate in plain language what it can do and what it cannot do, so that the student will have a clear idea of what is available in the way of health services. Too frequently the student's casual reading of the college bulletin will give him a vastly exaggerated idea of what he may expect from the institution in case of illness or injury. There are definite limitations in the health services that can be offered, and every student should be aware of them.

### THE HEALTHFUL ENVIRONMENT

The general environment of college students has not always been conducive to healthful living, either mentally or physically. Even today many colleges are paying far more attention to remedial health services than they are to preventive services that will eradicate the causes of ill health. The environment of the college student has quite frequently been ignored by health officers, and it is only recently that they have begun to give serious attention to this important aspect of the total health program. The Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association<sup>16</sup> emphasized the need for attention in this area. The committee recommended the investigation of housing conditions to see that they met desirable standards with reference to sanitation, and to physical comforts in lighting, heating, ventilation, bathing and toilet facilities, sleeping conditions, attractiveness of rooms, freedom from unnecessary noise and confusion, and opportunity for study. It was also suggested in the report that it is the responsibility of the college to exert supervision over food and those who handled it. With reference to the classrooms, laboratories, libraries, gymnasiums, and rest rooms, the college should maintain the same high standards for working conditions that it does for living conditions.

Housing facilities contribute immensely to healthful living, but a college has varying degrees of control over the houses in which its students live. In many colleges the great majority of the students live at home, where the college obviously has no control, although even here it does have some responsibility. It would appear that, if a student's home is obviously contributing to his ill-health, the college authorities should at least attempt to see that some remedial action is taken. It is possible that

<sup>16</sup> Wilson, Charles C. (ed.), *Health Education*, Washington: National Education Association, 1948, pp. 266-267.

an interested and sympathetic college personnel worker may be able to help in changing a negative home environment, although more often than not he probably will be able to do little or nothing about the home situation. Such situations might be improved by the use of educational material that would be distributed to commuters for home discussion, and through health education at the college that would include a study of health problems in the home of each student. The college should at least be aware of the home environment, and it may be able to help the student to adjust to a negative environment if it cannot be changed.

If the student does not stay at home, the college usually assumes responsibility for his housing, and many institutions require all freshmen to live on the campus. In a large institution it is an extremely difficult task to make a continual check on all housing facilities, since a house that was considered satisfactory in one year will not necessarily fit the same category the next year. A continual check is necessary if there is to be any guarantee that students are living under healthful conditions. Many college housing bureaus send inspectors every year to check rooming houses, and if they are not approved as satisfactory they will not be placed on the approved list. In many cities college housing authorities are aided by local health and licensing authorities.

There is usually much closer supervision of dormitory living than there is of any other form of college housing, and there is a much better chance that the dormitory student's environment will be conducive to healthful living. Diehl and Shepard<sup>17</sup> feel that college authorities pay little attention to the dismal and unhealthful conditions that often exist in rooming houses, even though they make regular inspections of college dormitories.

The effects of an unhealthful environment may first be noted by the alert college teacher, but, unless every teacher feels keenly his personnel function, the preventive measures that might easily be taken may never be put into operation. A good part of the student's environment is the classroom, and the teacher should know his students well enough at least to be aware of such things as excessive absences, apparent fatigue, continual irritation and aggressiveness, or pronounced withdrawal from class discussions. Such symptoms may be directly caused by the student's environment, and the part of his environment that is the cause of such symptoms could be the classroom. The instructor should be concerned with the seating and lighting conditions, the ventilation, and with other physical facilities in his classroom. This may not come under his jurisdiction, but he should at least attempt to remedy an unhealthy situation. He should be even more concerned with the psychological environment in his classroom, since this is almost completely the product of the instructor.

<sup>17</sup> Diehl and Shepard, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

He can create a positive environment in his classroom so that, though the rest of the student's environment may be negative, for at least a few hours a day he will be in a climate where positive growth is possible. A healthy classroom atmosphere, however, is only possible with an instructor who enjoys teaching and knows how to teach.

There are many obvious teaching defects that help to create the type of climate that makes growth and learning almost impossible; for example, such things as reading from prepared notes, showing a lack of interest in the task of teaching and in the students who are being taught, refusing to allow students to ask questions and to criticize the point of view of the instructor, giving examinations that test nothing more than the student's skill in retention of material presented by the instructor, showing a complete lack of a sense of humor, and indicating lack of knowledge and incompetence in the subject being taught. Such procedures result in frustration, irritation, and hostility. When students emerge from a classroom with such feelings, there is obviously much to be done in the matter of a healthful classroom environment.

All personnel workers must also be concerned with the campus environment. It is the responsibility of a health officer to see that measures are taken to control communicable diseases, that correct safety precautions are observed, and that general sanitary conditions on the campus are maintained at a high level. The Third National Conference<sup>18</sup> felt that these tasks could be accomplished administratively by one or more of the following means:

1. By a campus or faculty public health committee
2. By a campus public health officer or public health nurse with authority delegated by the president or public health committee
3. By a student health service authorized as campus public health agency
4. By stipulated agreement between the college administration and local, country, or state public health departments

Responsibility for total campus sanitation means that the college must exert supervision over food and those who handle it. Personnel workers are cognizant that nutrition is a very important aspect of healthful living and has a large contribution to make to it. The food needs of college students are characteristically those of individuals who require a higher proportion of growth-promoting and energy-bearing foods. College health services are showing an awareness of the importance of nutrition by employing increasing numbers of qualified dieticians, and more campus food services employ trained personnel than ever before. Some years ago Iowa State College set up an effective program in this particular area. The health service of the institution maintained a nutrition clinic through

<sup>18</sup> *A Health Program for Colleges*, p. 71.



the cooperation of the department of nutrition, and all students with nutritional problems were referred to this department by the physicians of the health services. Since many students come to college in a state of poor nutrition, the importance of the above type of service is obvious.

One of the particular problems in this whole area has been the determination of valid measures of good nutrition. There is a particular need for research in this phase of the total health program.

The campus environment must be healthful if the students who are in need of remedial aid are to be helped to grow to better health, and if the students who are in a state of good health are to remain that way. The college or university may contribute a great deal to the creation of an environment conducive to healthful living, or it may shirk this responsibility by ignoring some negative situations and creating others. This is short-sighted since it will make the need for remedial services even more vital. Even if the college is thinking only of its existence, with no regard for the student body at all, it should surely be clear that it must concern itself with the environment in which its students live.

## HEALTH EDUCATION

The most extensive health services would appear to be of little value if no attempt is made to educate the student for healthful living. Every possible means should be used so that the students may continually practice the rules of healthful living and have some knowledge of remedial action that should be taken if their health should happen to be impaired. Each student should come to have an understanding concern over the state of his own health, but too frequently this would appear to be considered solely as the business of doctors, nurses, and other hospital workers. Health instruction at the college level has been in ill repute since its inception, and, more often than not, there has been little or no effort to improve it.

College teaching at any level is frequently bad enough, but courses in hygiene and health are often given by medical doctors who not infrequently turn out to be the worst of all teachers. It should not be too difficult to make courses in health education vital and meaningful, since practically every student is interested in his health and ways of maintaining it. However, when these courses are given they very often turn out to be a series of lectures on meaningless medical statistics, which as far as the student is concerned have no relationship whatsoever to his actual living. This is another of the many areas where the course content should be largely determined by student needs. In this case, a student committee can provide pertinent information as to the particular health problems and health needs on the campus. To be meaningful, a health course must deal



with the health needs of those students who are attending the institution.

The administrative attitude that tolerated such a course has been indicated by the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association.<sup>19</sup> This committee reported that for two centuries the two points of view that dominated the teaching of college hygiene were the notions that (1) given a good scientific background of the facts of human structure and function, the student would then apply this knowledge in the solution of his own problems, and that (2) the teacher or authority knew best what problems or topics should be presented and that students had little need for participation in the planning of the materials because they did not realize what they should know.

These misconceptions have persisted for a long time, and they continue to persist, although by 1920 college administrators were beginning to realize that healthful living did not come about simply by offering to the student the physical facts of good living. They began to realize that healthful living was psychological as well as physiological and that courses in health education, like all other courses, had to be adapted to the needs and interests and problems of the students. Many studies have been made in the past few decades with regard to the health interests of students. One of these, by Oberteuffer,<sup>20</sup> indicated the opinions of 2,000 college men on the relative value of a course in personal hygiene. This study indicated that the most pertinent topics were mental health, physical activity, the meaning of health, nutrition, disease prevention, professional health services, and sex and reproduction.

Almost as ineffective as the health course has been the calisthenics, or, as it has been traditionally known, the "Phys. Ed." or "P.T." For years this aspect of the curriculum has been among the most disliked of all the requirements. Students are usually more active than most of their physical-education instructors, and the meaningless routine imposed upon them by the course was quite pointless and ridiculous. Too frequently the student who had an excellent physique received most of the attention while the underdeveloped student received little instruction and was largely ignored. In some institutions today any student who can pass a physical-fitness test is excused from physical education, although a yearly reexamination is required.

In the Boston University School of Education the emphasis in physical education is on the development of all students. There is little concern with the development of champions, but much emphasis is placed on the acquisition by all students of athletic skills and capacities that will help

<sup>19</sup> Wilson (ed.), *op. cit.*, p. 269.

<sup>20</sup> Oberteuffer, Delbert, *Personal Hygiene for College Students*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930, p. 69.

them to be happier people and better teachers. Those students who are skilled in some sports become the instructors of those who have more to learn.

More and more top college administrators are coming to see that the total college health program cannot be effective without functional and realistic health instruction in the hands of competent teachers. The attitude of Alexander Grant Ruthven,<sup>21</sup> former President of the University of Michigan, is typical of this point of view. He has said, "it may be asserted, with little danger of successful contradiction, that the colleges, like the grade schools, have lost many years of opportunity in the development of their health programs by neglecting health teaching, and the responsibility for this loss in time and opportunity must be accepted in full by college administrators and faculties."

Some universities have realized this need, and increasing numbers of "health educators" are being trained. Boston University is one of these institutions, and it was the first to train health educators at the undergraduate level. Practically all of these graduates, however, are going into public schools, and there are relatively few health educators at the doctorate level of training.

Health instructors, like other teachers, are the personnel workers who have the greatest contact with the largest number of students. Poor health instruction can do a great deal of harm to the total health program. The administration of a college or university cannot afford to tolerate incompetent health instruction.

## HEALTH COUNSELING

When we speak of the health of the college student we refer to his physical, mental, and social well-being. Very rarely can one of these areas be affected without in some way having a reaction on the other two. All personnel workers, and counselors in particular, must obviously be concerned with the total health of the student. In fact, the very position of many counselors is necessary because of the poor health of the college student. The counselor is one of the remedial agents who must help the student to regain the health that has been impaired by unhealthful living. In addition, of course, he must be concerned with the prevention of ill-health and the maintenance of good health. The health service and the counselor must work together on this problem, since there is no simple distinction between the organic difficulty that may best be alleviated in a general hospital, the psychiatric difficulty that may belong in the psychiatrist's office, or the psychological difficulty that may best be solved by

<sup>21</sup> Ruthven, Alexander Grant, "College Students and Health Education," *School and Society*, 66:226, September, 1947.

the therapeutic counselor. The counselor may contribute much information that will be of value to the medical doctor in his understanding of a case that lies within his field, while the information that may result from the medical examination, or information given by observant nurses while the student is hospitalized, may be of great aid to the counselor. The medical doctor may find that a student has little in the way of physiological difficulties. He would then refer him to the psychiatric or counseling service.

Woefully little is known about the mental health of college students, and the majority of health examinations given to incoming students are more aptly described as physical inspections rather than medical examinations. There is little in the way of organized procedures in most colleges or universities to prevent the neurotic and even the psychotic student from gaining entrance. There is frequently little in the way of counseling services for the disturbed individuals who want help, and there is even less in the way of means of detecting the disturbed individuals who need help but will not seek it. The Third National Conference<sup>22</sup> has conservatively estimated that the needs of students for mental health services are as follows:

1. Five percent would be considered urgent cases requiring immediate and specialized care if they are to avoid serious difficulty.
2. Five percent would manifest sufficient emotional discomfort to warrant psychiatric attention.
3. Five percent could get along without help, but would profit from it in the promotion of personality, efficiency, and adjustment to the college environment.

There are many measures, including projective devices, that may be used in an attempt to screen out those individuals who will benefit from mental hygiene services. A major difficulty, however, lies in the fact that many individuals who might benefit from health services either do not feel able or do not want to make use of the services that they know are available.

The *Cornell Index*<sup>23</sup> is a good example of a simple psychosomatic screening device that does indicate at least some of the students who are suffering from what are generally known as psychosomatic disorders. It suffers from weaknesses common to all question inventories, but the counselor does know that, while a low score may or may not indicate one who is in need of psychiatric or therapeutic help, a high score does indicate that the student very probably is having a difficult time.

The various questions in such inventories may be used as a means of entry by the counselor. A casual reference to any one item may be all that

<sup>22</sup> *A Health Program for Colleges*, p. 89.

<sup>23</sup> *Cornell Index*, New York: The Psychological Corporation. 1948.



is needed to get the student started discussing a basic problem. Such a discussion may tend to reinforce the original indication that the student is in need of medical help of a physiological nature, or it may sometimes tend to indicate that his disturbance is psychological. There is little doubt that the counselor's records are not complete if he does not have some indications of the medical doctor's diagnosis of the health of the student as well as the student's own ideas with regard to the state of his health.

The relationship of counseling to the total health program has been recognized by the American Council on Education. The Committee on Counseling for Mental Health<sup>24</sup> has stated that mental health is achieved, in part, from the building up of immunities through meeting and solving conflicts and, in part, from the study and consistent growth of the personality through the opportunities that college life may provide. They go on to say that this is accomplished by a good healthful campus climate in terms of admissions procedures, curriculum offerings, academic testing and counseling, social programs, religious opportunities, and high faculty and student morale. If mental health is a measure of a person's ability to shape his environment, and to adjust to life as he has to face it, then there is no doubt that counseling is a most important part of the total health program.

The recent emphasis by medical authorities on psychosomatic medicine has served to emphasize the value of the counselor in the entire health program. No longer acceptable is the concept that sees the counselor as a technician who administers tests and gives advice on intellectual difficulties. The modern counselor is a therapeutically trained psychologist, and he must obviously be a "health" counselor. He should work with the medical doctor in discussing and helping those students who have disorders that are psychogenic in origin. A diagnosis of constipation, or ulcers, or eczema, or arthritis, or diabetes, or asthma does not automatically mean that the responsibility for treatment should fall on the shoulders of either the medical doctor or the counselor. Nor does it mean that treatment should automatically be in the hands of a psychiatrist. Further investigation of the original diagnosis of constipation may indicate that the one best equipped to work with the patient may be the counselor, or it may be the medical doctor, or it may be the psychiatrist.

The organization, administration, and integration of the total health program of an institution of higher education involves a multitude of problems. There is obviously no specific pattern to be recommended because of the various conditions existing in different colleges and universities, but, if an institution is to be consistent with a democratic philosophy,

<sup>24</sup> *Counseling for Mental Health*, American Council on Education Studies, 1947, Series VI, Vol. XI, No. 8, Washington, pp. 17-18.



it would seem to be essential that some form of a health services committee or a health council be organized to carry out these functions. Such a committee would be responsible to the chief personnel officer of the institution, and it would most likely be headed by the director of the health services. This coordinator should be a medical doctor so that he will have a professional understanding of health problems, but he should also be an educator and a democratic administrator. Such a combination is not always too easy to find, but the health committee will not be able to perform its functions effectively if its chairman is a narrow specialist in the medical field with little understanding of the many problems connected directly with the health of the students. Membership on the committee should include representatives of all those individuals directly concerned with the effectiveness of the health program. Thus the committee would likely include representatives of the physical-education department, the counseling services, the admissions office, the housing and dining service, the health services, and of course, the student body. A committee made up of individuals representing all the various personnel services and the student body would be able to keep its finger on the total effectiveness of the institution's health program. The chief personnel officer of the institution would be kept up-to-date with regard to changes and additions that should be made to that program.

## CHAPTER 10 *Housing and Dining Services*

There is no doubt that a youth learns a good deal during his stay at a college. Much of this learning, however, does not occur in the classroom, where he spends a relatively few hours, but in the many other experiences in living that occur outside of the classroom walls. For the student who lives on the campus the residence halls may offer a major learning experience in social living. The dormitory may be the most important factor in the social education of the student, or it may merely be a place where the student must stay. The dining hall may offer experiences in graceful living, or it may be a prisonlike mess hall where the student gets through the process of eating as quickly as possible. The late venerable president of Columbia University<sup>1</sup> recognized the part that college housing played in the total educative process when he said, "It is to be borne in mind that the provision of residence halls is as essential a part of the work of the university as the provision for libraries, laboratories, and classrooms. The chief purpose of university residence halls is not one of housing, but of education and educational influence."

For many students the college dormitory will be the first experience in living on intimate terms with a group of individuals of the student's own age. For many, the term "social responsibility" will for the first time come to have some real meaning. The socialization of the student to the point where he is a mature and unselfish individual is one of the responsibilities of an institution of higher learning. The university residence hall, more than any other unit on the campus, is the place where this process may be watched and guided so that in due time the student may become a mature and responsible citizen. There can be little disagreement with Whitmore and Hand's statement:<sup>2</sup> "Ranking over any other factor in college learning

<sup>1</sup> Nicholas Murray Butler, as quoted by Margaret M. Justin, "The Present Status of the Housing of College Students," in Kathryn McHale and Frances V. Speck, *Housing College Students*, Washington: American Association of University Women, 1939, p. 4.

<sup>2</sup> Whitmore, Annalee, and Harold C. Hand, "Sororities, Fraternities and Other Living Groups," in Harold C. Hand (ed.), *Campus Activities*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, p. 147.

is the twenty-four-hours-a-day influence of the student living group. A student's adjustment to society, his scholarship, his attitudes, and his mental and physical health are as a whole largely determined by where and how he lives."

Lloyd-Jones and Smith<sup>3</sup> advanced an argument with a practical approach for housing services when they wrote: "It is coming to be believed that standards of health and living—for men as well as for women—can be maintained more easily and naturally and at far less cost in dormitories, controlled by competent people, than by any other means." To this thought might be added the idea that a college education is not really complete if the student does not live on campus. The commuter student is actually only a part-time student, and "college" will mean much less to him than it will to his dormitory brother.

### THE DEVELOPMENT OF COLLEGE HOUSING SERVICES

The problem of housing and feeding students began as soon as the university was established, and it is probable that in the Middle Ages it was a more serious problem than it is now. The influx of poor and very youthful students into what were later to become "college" towns led to many clashes with the townsfolk, even as it does on a more civilized plane today. The original college housing was very much student controlled and student operated, but this control gradually passed into the hands of the institution. By the beginning of the seventeenth century the management of all residence halls was the responsibility of university authorities. There was little or nothing in the way of self-government, but much in the way of friction between the students and the faculty members who were the dormitory disciplinarians as well as college teachers. Cowley<sup>4</sup> points out that with the coming of the Reformation and the French Revolution the residential system was abandoned by universities on the Continent. If the French and Spanish, rather than the English, had dominated American colonization, the whole college and university system in America might not have included residence living. This, however, was not the case, and when Harvard was founded as the first institution of higher learning in the English colonies it included the residence halls that were a part of the English colleges.

The colonists had originally planned on a development of colleges, but Harvard, William and Mary, and Yale were all that evolved. Nor were the residence halls that developed in America patterned after the English system. In Oxford and Cambridge the residence hall had become an in-

<sup>3</sup> Lloyd-Jones, Esther M., and Margaret Ruth Smith, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, p. 191.

<sup>4</sup> Cowley, W. H., "The History of Student Residential Housing," *School and Society*, 40:705-712, Dec. 1, 1934, and 40:758-764, Dec. 8, 1934.

tegral part of the total education of the student. In America, however, the residence hall became a means of control rather than a way of education. This was one of the major causes of the negative student-faculty relations that prevailed in early American colleges.

In the nineteenth century, when colleges and universities were beginning to be established in the Western section of the United States, the Prussian influence in education, with its almost complete emphasis on the intellectual, was very marked. This was indicated by the lack of concern with college housing in the early development of colleges in the West. The fact that the residence halls in the eastern section of the country were by no means an unqualified success also influenced the thinking of educators on this question. Two other practical factors were that students themselves were by no means enthusiastic about residence-hall living, and the cost of building residence halls was a major part of the total cost of building a university.

By the beginning of the present century there were many universities with no residence facilities at all, but it was about this time that the concept of the dormitory as an educational unit once more began to be accepted. This acceptance was to a great extent due to the work of three men. The attempt of Woodrow Wilson to organize a house plan at Princeton in 1905 failed, but it stirred much discussion and thought in educational circles. Lowell worked out a successful house plan for Harvard in 1909, and since that time Harvard has consistently placed a major emphasis on the housing of its students. William Rainey Harper sponsored the idea of residence living in the new University of Chicago, and this influenced many Western institutions to build residence halls. Cowley<sup>5</sup> points out that the revival of the philosophy of residence living as a factor in the education of students is due to a very large part to the following influences:

. . . the Hadley protest at Yale, the establishment of dormitories at Chicago, the efforts of Wilson at Princeton, the Lowell program at Harvard, the residence philosophy of the eastern women's colleges, the work of the deans of women and finally the hue and cry for more student life from students and alumni.

The last half century has seen a steady expansion in the building of college dormitories, but in most colleges the rate of building has not kept pace with the student enrollment. This was especially so in the years of the GI Bill after the Second World War. With uncertain prospects as to future enrollment and with the ever-increasing costs of building and maintaining dormitories, most college administrators are wary about plunging into the building of college housing unless it is absolutely imperative. It is also true that college housing is still regarded by many college administrators as something apart from other personnel services.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 763.



In many colleges there is no place on the campus where there is a greater need for personnel-minded and personnel-trained workers. The traditional untrained and underpaid housemother and her male counterpart are still very much a part of American college housing.

Most institutions now assume the responsibility of housing at least some of their students in institutional housing, on or off the campus, or in non-institutional housing under the supervision and partial control of the institution. This is a different kind of problem in a state institution, such as the State College of Washington, where there is not too great a difference between the college population and the town population, from that in large urban institutions, such as Boston University and New York University. The change in the role of college housing in different institutions may be noted in the fact that the proportion of students living in institutional housing has increased at Harvard University from 1,700 out of 2,500, or 70 per cent, in 1920, to 3,400 out of 4,400, or 75 per cent, in 1952; at the University of Minnesota, from 6 per cent in 1941 to 16 per cent in 1952; at Colorado State College of Education, from none in 1920 to 30 per cent in 1952; at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, from 10 per cent in 1920 to 60 per cent in 1952.

There is general agreement that the institution is responsible for the physical, mental, and emotional well-being of the student who lives on the campus twenty-four hours a day. The college obviously has a greater responsibility to a dormitory student than a hotel has to one of its guests. If an institution of higher learning is interested in a complete education for its students, then it will accept the responsibility for the total living conditions that they experience during their stay on the campus.

Many institutions are making a determined effort to make their residence halls more of an educational unit. At the University of Minnesota, for example, interesting work is being done by the Student Housing Bureau to improve the chances for the socialization of out-of-town students who must live in the city. Full-time social workers are employed to work with students and householders. The university health service sets up standards for rating the rooming houses, apartments, and private homes used. A regular training course is conducted for householders to give them some idea of the student problems and the student-personnel point of view, and to help them learn some simple techniques for working with students.

The University of Wisconsin is attempting to improve the educational contributions of its residence halls through its house fellow system. These fellows are considered as teachers and are given educational status. An intensive training period of several days takes place in the fall, followed by weekly training periods during the whole year. These graduate fellows are not chosen because of need, but are carefully picked to lead group life

in the dormitories. They are well screened for tact, refinement without loss of masculinity, ability to lead without dominating, and understanding of the basic education and development the university wishes its students to achieve through group living.

Stanford University uses the services of graduate resident assistants, who work with the director of residence halls. For this work these students receive room, board, and part tuition.

At Syracuse University "student deans" are female graduate students who are training for residence-hall work. They assume responsibility for the direction of small halls and are responsible to the Dean of Women. For their services they receive room, board, and tuition.

Stephens College operates its residence halls on the premise that heads of halls are teachers as well as personnel workers, and that they must be trained in the techniques and skills necessary for them to contribute to the education of the student. Their work is coordinated with that of the classroom teacher and admissions counselors so as to achieve complete integration of the factors necessary for student development.

Stewart<sup>6</sup> indicates that the University of Kentucky hopes that among other things the experience in group living in residence halls will provide an experience in social education for students, will help them to clarify their concepts of what is socially and ethically acceptable behavior and what is not, will aid in the development of new and stimulating interests, and will encourage them to accept responsibility in governing themselves.

Notable in modern thinking with regard to the rule of college housing in higher education is the increasing acceptance of the belief in the capacities of the students to shoulder responsibility for a large part of the operation of institutional housing. The college residence hall has much to offer in the achievement of the goal of student self-determination. Many institutions are utilizing to the utmost the many learning experiences available for students and discovering at the same time that the more students are used the more efficient the operation of the dormitory becomes.

Miami University recognizes the vital role of residence halls in its total program and provides trained counselors for its dormitories. Large residences housing freshmen have the services of a full-time counselor plus a part-time assistant. These staff people live in the dormitory. The part-time assistant is usually a member of the teaching faculty. Close liaison between students and student-personnel services, and between students and faculty, is maintained. Carefully chosen faculty personnel serve as resident counselors of the smaller dormitories.

This use of teaching faculty in the dormitories serves a very definite intellectual need of many students who live in college residences. In the past,

<sup>6</sup> Stewart, Helen Guien, *Some Social Aspects of Residence Halls for College Women*, New York: Professional and Technical Press, 1942, p. 68.

the intellectual stature of the students has often been far above that of the majority of the dormitory personnel, and there has been little in the way of intellectual stimulation.

The State College of Washington is another institution experimenting with freshman residence. Some of its large dormitories employ two full-time counselors as well as several part-time assistant counselors. At this institution apartments for husband-and-wife teams are available in the men's residences. It is felt that having married couples leading the dormitory program has some advantages. The wife isn't on the payroll but usually serves as the hostess of the residence hall. The educational lives of the students residing in these dormitories are enriched by practice in group living—group living that includes social, interest, educational, and other co-curricular programs as well as self-government.

Borreson<sup>7</sup> feels that the problem of housing is one of the most pressing facing administrators today, and he sets down five propositions in his attempt to define the educational use of student housing:

1. The living unit is a display case of social-psychological mechanism, but the dynamics and behavior are badly integrated with the educational techniques and objectives used in the counselor's office and the classroom.
2. If the basic concepts of general education are to result in meaningful behavior, they must be derived from, and applied to, the immediate experiences of the student.
3. Real educational use of the living units demands broad positive educational objectives and rigorous criticism and validation of techniques used to achieve those objectives.
4. Educational control over living units is essential to achieve proper use of housing as a part of the educational enterprise.
5. Without closer working relationships between the instructional and the student-personnel staffs, these educational potentials will never be fulfilled.

There is an increasing realization among college educators of the potentialities of college housing as an integral and even major factor in the total education of the student. A close working relationship between the university or college counseling center and dormitory counselors and residence halls has been achieved in many colleges. In some institutions there is even an attempt to integrate the work of the classroom instructor and the dormitory counselors and residence heads so that they all may work together with the students in planning the students' educational experiences. A recent move in this direction was the appointment at Boston University of a director of the social program who will work with cur-

<sup>7</sup> Borreson, B. J., in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1949, pp. 243-244.



riculum and personnel officers and with students to improve the educational offering.

## TYPES OF COLLEGE HOUSING

1. *Dormitories.* On most campuses dormitories make up the greater part of the institutional housing. Thus at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology 75 per cent of the students who live on the campus reside in dormitories, 24 per cent live in fraternity and sorority houses, and 1 per cent live in cooperative houses. At the University of Minnesota 16 per cent of the students live in dormitories, and 6 per cent live in fraternity and sorority houses; while at Colorado State College of Education 30 per cent live in dormitories and 8 per cent live in fraternity and sorority houses. All the Yale students who live on campus live in dormitories under the residential college plan. University policy does not permit students to live in fraternity houses. All undergraduates living on campus are housed in one of the ten residential colleges, each of which is under the direct supervision and control of a college master.

At Harvard the freshmen are all housed in the "Yard" under the supervision of the Dean of Freshmen. All the upperclassmen, other than those who are living at home or with relatives, are housed in seven residential houses.

Generally, a larger proportion of women students will be found living in college housing, including dormitories, than will men. The original view of college residence as being a place of protection for women students is still evident, and this also results in the supervision in the women's dormitories being much stricter than in the men's dormitories. In one large urban university there exists the ludicrous requirement that all female students under twenty-three years of age who are not living at home must reside in university housing. The result is that some women who have been living as independent adults for some years discover that they are responsible to a housemother for almost every move.

While some institutions have made a tremendous effort to expand and staff their dormitory facilities so that the dormitories really can be a part of the total educational experience, most institutions find themselves hard pressed to build enough housing to shelter and feed their students. Not many state institutions can finance a dormitory building drive such as has occurred in the past few years at the State College of Washington and Michigan State College. Few private institutions can finance the sort of dormitory building that has gone on at such wealthy institutions as Harvard and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

As noticeable as the lack of physical facilities is the lack of trained personnel to staff the college dormitories. In 1947 a nationwide survey



was made of the requirements for the position of head of residence halls.<sup>8</sup> Replies were received from eighty-six colleges and universities. Twenty-two out of seventy-five institutions indicated that no degree or college training was required for heads of residence halls. Thirty-nine out of sixty-eight institutions indicated that the job required most of the time of the residence hall worker. Salaries ranged from \$25 a month plus room and board to \$3,960 a year plus maintenance. Twenty-three out of seventy-two institutions gave residence heads no professional status or academic rank. Twenty-seven schools indicated that no opportunities for professional growth were offered by the college or university. The duties of these residence heads ranged all the way from counseling to handing out electric light bulbs. One institution described the duties of the residence head as follows: "Work with student government, organize social program to develop responsibility, increase participation and promote social amenities. Administration of office. Organize material for weekly staff meetings. Hold six weekly meetings with the medical doctor. Counsel transfer and foreign students. Keep cumulative records of counseling load. Write recommendations for seniors for occupational bureaus. Sit at head table twice a week. Check general cleaning of building and supervise maids. Check students' rooms. Give out light bulbs. Close house at midnight. Serve as hostess and chaperone."

It is generally accepted that dormitories should not be profit-earning, but at the same time in some institutions it is assumed that they should pay their own way. This tends to indicate the lack of acceptance of housing as a personnel service, since most other such services, as health and counseling, would soon cease to exist if they had to pay their own way. This "paying your own way" philosophy would also tend to indicate that in some institutions the residence halls are not considered a part of the total educational experience provided for the student.

2. *Fraternity and sorority houses.* Despite the clamor against fraternities and sororities most college freshmen still consider membership in an admired fraternity or sorority as a highly desirable achievement. To live at a fraternity house is still the fond dream of many college girls and boys. A fraternity house is much smaller and more of a living unit than a dormitory. It seems reasonable to assume that it could be much more of an educational unit than could the larger dormitory. Offsetting its smaller size, however, is the fact that it represents a screened part of the college population, and it is still debatable whether a fraternity house is educating for snobbery and special privilege or for a democratic way of living.

<sup>8</sup> Personal information from Louise Latham, North Carolina College, Durham. Miss Latham served as a member of the committee making the survey. Also published in Women's Personnel Staff, Harvard University, *Duties, Status, Salaries, Training, Work Houses, etc., of Women Head Residents in Eighty-six Colleges and Universities*, Washington, 1947.

A major difference of the fraternity group, when compared with students in other types of housing, is that the students have become members of the group through a process of selection on the part of both the student and the group. Because it is such a highly selected group—and many question the criteria for selection—personnel officers with vision could use these small units as social laboratories far more than they do. National officers of fraternities are, on the whole, men and women of good will and enthusiasm with genuine concern for the social education of their younger members, even though their definition of “social” may sometimes be rather narrow.

On the whole, fraternity and sorority student government is probably as effective as it is in dormitories, and the general morale is usually higher because of the strong bonds of loyalty to the brotherhood or sisterhood. Student assumption of responsibility in fraternity and sorority houses may be made easier by the lack of institutional supervision, although institutional interest and assistance, if needed, would at all times be better than either supervision or lack of it.

3. *Cooperative houses.* Cooperative housing grew rapidly during the early days of the depression, when an increasing number of students found it impossible to finance their college education if they had to pay the cost of living in a dormitory. The cooperative house probably represents the closest approach to democratic living in campus housing, since the work, the decisions, and the costs of running the house are shared by all those who live there. From the point of view of an education, there is no form of housing that is as meaningful as cooperative housing—that is, when the house is really managed by students and not by the administration. Unfortunately, administrative control ranges from mere tolerance and ownership of the building to the choosing of the furniture and equipment, the appointment of a housemother, and the rigid supervising of the budget.

On the other hand, a small cooperative unit for women at the University of Southern California operates under a supervisory committee composed of three faculty and four student members elected by the membership of the hall. The student group controls its budget, pays its rent, sets up its own committees for cooking and cleaning, chooses and buys its own furniture, and chooses and employs its own head resident. The selection of residents is entirely in the hands of the group, the major criterion being the cooperative attitude of the prospective member of the hall. Particular emphasis is placed on the inclusion of students from other countries and of various religious beliefs. The result is a small international and intercultural house where social education occurs “by attrition,” and where students soon learn that individual responsibility is essential for the welfare of the group.

4. *Off-campus housing.* Few institutions can house all of their students

who do not reside with their parents or with relatives in institutional housing on the campus. The great majority must resort to the use of off-campus housing in private homes or rooming houses. This is obviously the poorest form of college housing, and much less institutional assistance is possible. In most colleges approval is needed if the student is to live off the campus elsewhere than at home or with relatives, and the college authorities usually have a list of approved houses where the students are expected to reside. Freshmen and women students are the first to be served with whatever housing is available on the campus. In many colleges it is required that all freshmen and women students who are not residing at home stay in campus college residences. Many parents would hesitate to send their sons and, particularly, their apparently more susceptible daughters to college if they were not assured that college housing would be provided for them.

Some institutions, such as Miami University, provide special counselors for students housed off the campus. By this means the administration is kept up-to-date with regard to conditions in rooming houses.

At Stanford there are upper-class sponsors assigned to people who live off campus, even if at home. The sponsor functions as a counselor, and one of the greatest student honors at the university is to be chosen as a sponsor.

At the State College of Washington there are graduate assistants in the office of the Dean of Students who serve as counselors for fraternity and off-campus groups.

A few colleges having a minority of students living in off-campus housing have provided special dining rooms for these "orphans," in an attempt to make them feel that they are a part of the college. Meeting together at mealtime helps to give a feeling of belonging not too unlike that held by the dormitory students. An administrative officer or faculty representative may preside at the dining hall and, by way of announcements, bulletin boards, guests, and so on, keep the off-campus students up-to-date on what is happening on the campus.

In many large institutions, particularly the large city colleges, it is almost impossible to keep track of the housing facilities of all students, and very often the approved list of housing means practically nothing at all. If an approved list of housing is to be meaningful, there must be a regular check of all off-campus housing to be used by students. Such a check is often beyond the capacity of the institution.

Brooklyn College's House Plan Association is an outstanding example of a program designed to meet the personal, cultural, and social needs of its nonresident students. Small student groups (10 to 20), each with its own officers and its own upper-class student adviser, give the individual student a sense of security, a feeling of belonging, and the opportunity to



develop close friendships. Informal parties and dances provide opportunity for the student to meet other students and provide experiences in social situations. Other activities, such as charitable and cultural projects, give the student a feeling of recognition and status in knowing he is contributing to the welfare of the college and the community. In general, the purpose of the association, now numbering 180 groups, is the development of intelligent leadership and followership, and the enrichment of the social, intellectual, and cultural aspects of student life.

A House Plan Council representing all groups or "houses" meets weekly to decide general policies, integrate programs, and provide a connecting link between Executive Committee and the groups. An Executive Committee sponsors functions that an individual group could not undertake.

Houses or groups are not coeducational. Thus women have an opportunity to develop programs in which they have a particular interest and to develop their own leadership. At the same time they may combine with men's groups for activities in which both sexes are interested.

The unique feature of the plan is the Student Adviser Program. In 1952-1953, 180 student advisers were chosen on the basis of leadership, ability, academic record, experience in group activities and volunteer community service, and interest in continuous leadership training. After being assigned to a group, the adviser submits semimonthly narrative records of his contacts with the group, which are used as the basis for conferences with his supervisor, a member of the staff of the Student Activities Department. Additionally, each adviser is one of a group of forty who meet three times each semester for a training session with the supervisor. Moreover, advisers have their own staff meetings every two weeks for sharing techniques to establish rapport, to encourage discussion, and to attack problem areas. Student advisers publish a bulletin and submit leadership evaluation reports for each officer of their groups. In the fall an advisers' conference is held making use of the sociodrama and other group-work techniques.

The members of the Student Adviser Program have repeatedly stated that the experience has been most valuable. They have learned at first hand what is essential for a group to function well—the necessity for the members to work together and the importance of a well-balanced program that combines social, charitable, and cultural activities so that members of a group feel it to be a worth-while activity. They like being supervised, knowing that there is someone to help them gain more insight into their own role in the group, someone with whom they can discuss the problems of the group and who can share in their responsibility. The number of students who have been willing to comply with the responsibilities and disciplines of the program for at least one semester and, in most cases, a year, is proof that they have felt the experience a rewarding one.



There is little doubt that in a large number of colleges and universities the student residence is still generally regarded as a place where students sleep and eat. Quite frequently, it is also a place where students are kept under a certain amount of control by individuals who could hardly be described as professional personnel workers. Nowhere, probably, is the ineffectiveness of appointments as glaringly evident as in residence halls, and nowhere is the prestige of the personnel worker lower. The term "house counselor" has in some residences replaced the term "house-mother," but too frequently this would appear to be about the only change that has taken place.

If the philosophy of the institution is such that its purpose is to serve the student and to help him to become an intelligently critical citizen, then it is obvious that the personnel workers in the college residences are in a key position to aid in the attainment of that goal. They cannot be too effective, however, if the administration is not concerned enough to employ personnel workers who have the personality and the training that will make them effective on the job, to accept them as fellow professional workers with professional status, to pay them as befits professional workers, and to back them up in the professional work that they carry out. The duties, tasks, and training of such personnel workers have been outlined in detail by the National Vocational Guidance Association in its job analysis of educational personnel workers. The training recommended for residence counselors consists of a Master's degree in counseling and guidance, student-personnel work, psychology, social science studies, or education. The job summary is as follows:<sup>9</sup>

Renders individual counseling and group guidance services to students in a dormitory relative to problems of scholastic, educational, vocational, and personal-social nature. Supervises dormitory activities, and interprets and enforces dormitory regulations. Coordinates and directs work of student counselors in dormitories. Consults with and advises deans relative to specific dormitory problems. May have charge of all university housing accommodations. Performs related duties. This job is performed in a college or university.

The use of such professional personnel workers is obviously more difficult if a large proportion of the student body resides in off-campus housing. Even in this area, however, improvements can be made. Michigan State College and The Ohio State University, for example, are attempting to improve the skills and understandings and knowledge of the householders, as well as offer protection to students living off the campus.

For a time at the University of Southern California notices were sent

<sup>9</sup> *Job Analysis of Personnel Workers*, Washington: National Vocational Guidance Association, 1951, p. 18.

out once a month for a meeting of the householders, and a simple in-service training program was offered. The sponsor of this program was the Dean of Men.

Graduate students may sometimes prove to be more effective residence-hall workers than poorly trained full-time workers. As has been indicated, students are used in this way at Stanford, Syracuse, Wisconsin, and other institutions. The students may receive valuable experience while they provide valuable service that will cost the institution very little. The mature graduate student who lacks the mantle of authority will often find it much easier to establish a counseling relationship than will the residence counselor whose philosophy is that of a disciplinarian. If the student counselor is in a counselor-training program he will probably be effective enough to provide skilled and professional service. This procedure, however, cannot be considered as a completely satisfactory answer, and the students who perform such services must be carefully screened and should be under close professional supervision.

### THE DINING SERVICES

Parents frequently find it difficult enough to make the family meal a pleasant and educative process, as well as a means of sustaining life. It is a much more complicated task to make the dining-hall experiences of several hundred students a valuable and educative experience. Many institutions apparently consider the task to be quite hopeless, and the residence dining hall is simply a place where the student eats, under supervision, as quickly as possible. He then retires to more pleasant surroundings. If the dining room is to be an effective unit in the total education of the student, the services of a professional dietician, who will prepare healthful meals, must be augmented by a residence-hall personnel worker who will be concerned with experiences in the dining hall other than the consumption of food. If no such supervision and service is available, the distinctly gloomy picture painted by Justin<sup>10</sup> may come true:

The individuals live abjectly. The newspaper replaces the tablecloth; the open sardine can or bean can replaces the decencies of the table. A general uncouthness of living replaces that sustained effort toward gracious living which might be expected to come from college life.

As one eats in the dining halls of many institutions it is exactly the same as if he were eating in a public cafeteria or lunchroom. The food is sometimes better than that served in a cafeteria, and it is sometimes worse. However, regardless of the quality of the food, it is too often served in cafeteria style. The sole purpose of the dining room is to serve food in the

<sup>10</sup> Justin, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

quickest and most economical manner. There is absolutely nothing in the way of education for social living. In some other colleges, however, the dining rooms are smaller, and they are pleasant. There is efficient table service, and tablecloths, good silverware, and good dishes are in evidence. Student hosts and hostesses preside at each table, and the emphasis is on conversation and on a leisurely companionable meal. The good food contributes only partly to the education and enjoyment of the meal. This family style of dining service can become an important part of the total educational experience. The availability of a food service unit in connection with the social and educational program in a dormitory is of great advantage to the personnel worker in charge of the residence-hall program.

In some large institutions there is a central menu-planning office and a central purchasing department for all food being served by the institution. This makes for greater economy in the cost of operation, and usually results in better-balanced and more healthful meals. Such a highly organized arrangement, however, makes it impossible to have many valuable learning experiences that can be planned around the food service when it is part of the individual residence.

On the other hand, one of the problems in some smaller colleges is that the head of the residence hall is responsible for the menu planning, although she very definitely is not trained to perform this task. The same situation often exists in fraternity and sorority houses. Lack of well-balanced and well-prepared meals in fraternity and sorority houses is often due to the fact that the housemother, who is responsible for the meals, has had nothing whatever in the way of professional training for such work. In addition, the housemother often receives little or no pay from the institution and must depend on what she can save from running the house to supplement her small salary. One of the most obvious ways of saving money is to cut down on the quality of the food served. In other cases, however, the housemother is paid a salary by the institution, and she is given a special fund from which she operates the house.

Another difficulty that frequently arises in institutions using community dining halls is that the food manager or dietician is directly responsible to the purchasing agent or the business manager. The dietician has to struggle along on what the business manager feels the institution can afford to feed the students. The expert in this case is the dietician, and he should be the one who will indicate a minimum sum that is essential if the students are to receive a decent menu. When a dietician is responsible to a personnel-minded residence director who is in turn responsible to a personnel dean, there is some likelihood that these three individuals will be able to work out a satisfactory plan. If, on the other hand, the dietician can go only to an economy-minded business manager who reports to an academic dean or a "businessman" president, there is



TABLE 1  
MEAN AMOUNTS OF GENERALIZATION OF RESPONSE  
AMPLITUDE

Group	Normal Ss		Psychiatric Ss	
	High anxiety	Low anxiety	High anxiety	Low anxiety
Strong shock	22.71	14.74	18.89	12.98
Weak shock	11.39	12.59	12.50	10.91
Buzzer	12.80	10.86	11.08	11.70
All conditions	15.63	12.73	14.16	11.86

modified scale. In addition, the *F*, *K*, and *L* scales of the MMPI were included to detect false high- or low-anxiety scores. Any one of the following criteria served to invalidate an anxiety score: (a) an *F* score of 12 or above, (b) a *K* score of 24 or above, or (c) an *L* score of 7 or above. The new version of the test was administered to 574 introductory psychology students, and the obtained distribution of scores was almost identical to the distribution obtained by Taylor. Thirty-six male Ss from the upper 20 per cent of the distribution and 36 males from the lower 20 per cent comprised the high- and low-anxiety groups, respectively.

*Procedure.* The apparatus employed in the experiment and the details of the procedure have been described previously (10). In general, the procedure involved training Ss to make a simple motor reaction as quickly as possible upon the presentation of a rectangularly shaped visual figure. Three other rectangles, differing from the training stimulus in height (in steps of 0.25 inches), served as the generalized stimuli to which the Ss were instructed *not* to respond. Following 20 trials with the training stimulus, Ss were given five test trials on each of the four stimuli. These 20 test trials were interspersed among 60 additional training trials, so that each test trial was followed by three presentations of the training stimulus. The frequency, amplitude, and latency of "false" motor responses to the test stimuli were obtained by means of a movement-recording pulley system and served as the measures of generalization. Variations in the level of experimentally induced anxiety were produced by instructing Ss that slow responses would elicit either a strong shock, a weak shock, or the sound of a buzzer. Shocks and buzzes were presented during the instruction period and on the sixth and eighteenth training trials.

### RESULTS

The major results of the experiment are presented in Tables 1 and 2, which show the mean amounts of generalization of response amplitude and the percentage frequencies for each of the six subgroups of normal and psychiatric Ss. Each of the means in Table 1 is based upon an over-all generalization score obtained for every S by summing the mean amplitude of his responses to the four stimuli on the 20 test trials; the means in Table 2 were similarly obtained from the total fre-

quency of responses during the 20 test trials, converted to percentages. Thus, these sum scores computed for each S represent essentially the heights of the individual generalization gradients, and their means designate the heights of the subgroup gradients. Latency data are not presented, since generalization gradients comparable to those found with the two principal measures were not obtained.

*Main effects of clinical and experimental anxiety.* The principal hypothesis of the present study was that high levels of clinical anxiety, as well as experimentally induced increases in anxiety, tend to elevate gradients of generalization. The Ss in the high-anxiety subgroups should therefore show greater amounts of generalization than those in the low-anxiety groups. Examination of Tables 1 and 2 reveals that the high-anxiety Ss tended to show more generalization of amplitude and percentage frequency in both normal and psychiatric groups. Statistical analyses of these data, a sample of which is presented as Table 3, indicates further that the difference between the two levels of clinical anxiety in amplitude of response is significant at the .05 level in the normal groups.

The difference between the two clinical-

TABLE 2  
MEAN AMOUNTS OF GENERALIZATION OF RESPONSE  
FREQUENCY IN PERCENTAGE

Group	Normal Ss		Psychiatric Ss	
	High anxiety	Low anxiety	High anxiety	Low anxiety
Strong shock	73.75	57.10	65.00	50.85
Weak shock	39.60	46.25	47.50	42.90
Buzzer	42.90	38.75	40.05	48.35
All conditions	52.08	47.37	50.83	47.37

TABLE 3  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF AMPLITUDE DATA FOR  
NORMAL SUBJECTS

Source of Variation	df	Mean Square	F
Clinical anxiety	1	151.67	3.99*
Experimental anxiety	2	371.77	9.78**
Clinical $\times$ experimental	2	130.43	3.43*
Within groups	66	38.01	
Total	71		

\*  $p = <.05$

\*\*  $p = <.01$



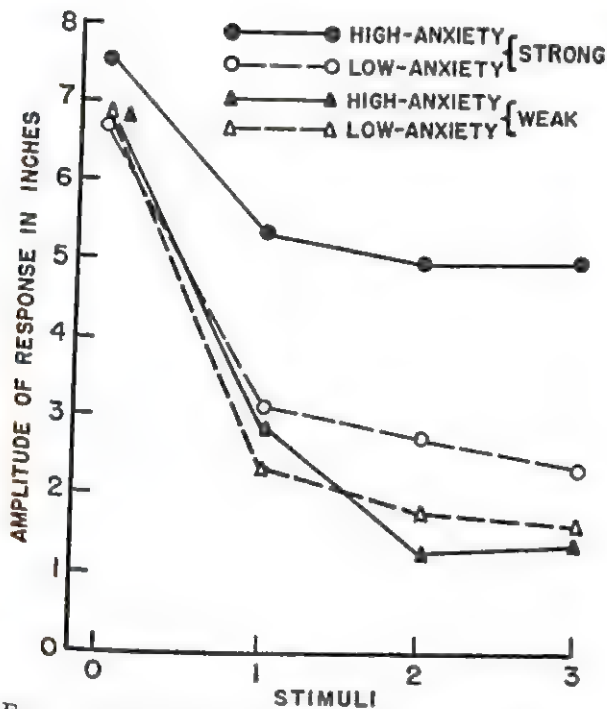


FIG. 1. GRADIENTS OF RESPONSE AMPLITUDE FOR HIGH- AND LOW-CLINICAL ANXIETY SUB-GROUPS IN THE NORMAL GROUP

The training stimulus is designated as 0; and the generalized stimuli are designated 1, 2, 3, in order of decreasing similarity to the training stimulus. Weak-shock and buzzer conditions have been combined in the curves labeled weak.

anxiety levels in generalization of amplitude, however, was not significant in the psychiatric Ss. Furthermore, the clinical anxiety variable produced no significant difference in mean frequency scores in either the normal or psychiatric Ss. In contrast to these generally negative findings for the main effects of clinical anxiety, experimental anxiety produced significant increases in generalization of amplitude and frequency for both normal and psychiatric Ss. As is apparent from Tables 1 and 2, however, while the strong-shock condition resulted in significant increases in generalization, the differences between the weak-shock and buzzer condition were not statistically significant.

*Interaction of clinical and experimental anxiety.* Further examination of Table 3 indicates that the interaction between clinical and experimental anxiety was significant at the .05 level. Careful scrutiny of Tables 1 and 2 and additional statistical comparisons reveal that this interaction effect is attributable to the fact that the high-clinical-anxiety groups exhibited significantly more generalization

than the low-anxiety groups *only* under the strong-shock condition.

This effect is presented graphically in Fig. 1, which shows the gradients of response amplitude obtained from the normal Ss under different experimental conditions. The weak-shock and buzzer groups have been combined in the curves labeled "Weak" for purposes of graphic presentation, since the differences between them were not significant. From Fig. 1 it is clear that strong shock consistently elevates the generalization gradient, but high clinical anxiety produced more generalization than low anxiety only when combined with strong shock. No significant difference in the height of the over-all generalization gradients was obtained between the high- and low-anxiety subgroups for either the weak-shock or buzzer conditions. Statistically significant interactions, essentially paralleling the results shown in Fig. 1, were obtained for frequency and amplitude measures in both the psychiatric and normal Ss.

#### DISCUSSION

It has been demonstrated in the present study that while experimentally induced increases in anxiety act as a drive in elevating gradients of generalization, high levels of clinical anxiety exhibited drive properties only when combined with strong shock. These results suggest that clinical anxiety may act to increase generalization only when the stimulus situation involves the threat of strong punishment. This finding is only partly confirmatory of the hypothesis that manifest anxiety symptoms indicate the presence of a strong anxiety drive, since the effects of this additional drive might also be expected to increase generalization under conditions of weaker experimentally induced anxiety.

One possible interpretation of this inconsistency is that clinical anxiety symptoms, as defined either by psychiatric ratings or scores on an anxiety scale, do indicate the presence of a drive-like anxiety state, but that the motivational properties of this state are not activated unless the conditioned anxiety response is elicited by appropriate cues or by sufficiently noxious stimulation. Cameron has described the chronic anxiety reaction as "characterized by the presence of persistently heightened skeletal and visceral tension . . . which predispose the individual to give exaggerated and in-

very little likelihood that the welfare of the students will be paramount.

Wherever possible, the dining hall should be a part of the individual residence, and it should be considered as a place for social education as well as for eating. The eating function, however, cannot be minimized, since even the most pleasant dining room will lose much of its attraction if the menu each day consists of prunes and boiled beef. This means that a food expert, such as a dietician, should be one of the individuals involved in the task of feeding the students. In smaller houses where it would be impractical to use the professional services of a dietician, the housemother or resident head should have some professional understanding of the preparation of meals, and the services of a dietician should at least be available.

Even if food must be served *en masse* in a cafeteria style, it should at least be under the direct control of a dean of students or of a committee of college personnel workers. The professional services of a dietician should be available for the preparation of the menu; but the dietician can be responsible to the housing director, and he should not be expected to develop the educational aspects of the dining services. In some colleges an attempt is made to reduce the commercial atmosphere of the large dining hall by having separate dining units for residence and nonresidence students. Little can be done for the nonresident students in the way of social education other than insisting on the requirements expected of any mannerly adult in a better restaurant. There is no reason, however, why the institution cannot indicate to the students that it expects from them the same behavior and consideration that they would exhibit in any good dining room.

While the dining-room population of nonresident students will fluctuate, the population of the residence-hall students will remain constant. It may be possible to serve family style for only the evening meal, if it is not economically feasible for breakfast and lunch. On the other hand, it may be possible, at the same cost, to have meals served at all times if the students take over the serving of meals to each other as part of their social education. Similarly, student hosts and hostesses can be used at every table. A deliberate attempt can be made to help all students to develop a dinner table conversation that can be interesting and entertaining as well as educative. An elected student committee can come to some decision as to requirements in the way of dress and behavior. When personnel officers and student leaders make it understood that they think of the dining room, as well as the entire residence hall, as an important unit in the total education of the student, and when the institution takes practical steps to implement this belief, there will be enthusiastic support from the student body.

## COUNSELING IN RESIDENCE HALLS

There is probably no place in a college or university where there is greater need for professional counseling services than in the residence hall, and it is equally likely that there are few places where the caliber of the counseling that takes place is less professional. The major reason for this situation has already been indicated. As long as college administrators feel that residence-hall workers do not rate faculty recognition or status, and as long as they pay them on a salary scale hardly commensurate with unskilled labor, then there is little likelihood that skilled and professionally trained personnel workers will be attracted to residence-hall work. This is particularly so in the field of counseling.

The residence-hall "counselor" is too frequently little more than a streamlined version of the housemother or the disciplinary housemaster. The student in the residence hall, particularly the freshman, often finds himself in a completely new world. He may have known little in the way of responsibility and have had no experience in leadership. His goal of living may have been little more than self-satisfaction. Despite his mature physique and possibly cosmopolitan air, he is still very much a dependent and immature individual. He is suddenly thrown into a group-living situation, and his happiness and well-being in the future will be greatly affected by the manner and the degree to which he can modify his former behavior in light of the new situation. In addition to living closely with, and sharing the experiences of, a large group of young people, he may also live in comparative intimacy with one, two, or three roommates. These roommates, as well as all of the members of the larger group, may help or hinder him in his struggle to adjust. Some students may be completely overcome and follow the dictates of a few students, regardless of whether these dictates are good or bad. Others may resist completely and withdraw from all participation in any group activities. In addition to adjusting to living with the group, the student may also, for the first time, have to adjust to the many rules and regulations of the administration. It will frequently be difficult for him to see the reason for many of these apparently ridiculous regulations. He may refuse to comply, or he may unwillingly submit and continually protest his fate. All too frequently this confused student will find no one to whom he can turn. There will be no one who seems to understand what he is talking about, no one who is willing to listen to him talk about his difficulties and help him to solve them for himself, no one who is capable of taking some steps to see that certain obstacles that are causing trouble are remedied or removed.

The counselor in a dormitory will be particularly concerned with the social development of the students, and, if his goal is self-determination



for each student, it will be extremely difficult for him to see himself in a disciplinary role. In a large dormitory there would be no reason why one or more counselors, who would be responsible to the head of the dormitory, should not function exactly as would the counselor in a clinic or counseling center. In a small residence hall this would be more difficult, but would be quite feasible as long as the students, through a committee, were responsible for their own control and discipline. If, however, the counselor is the only faculty representative in the residence, and if he is also responsible for student discipline, then almost certainly he will have a light load as far as his counseling duties are concerned.

The nondisciplinary counselor could act on a student disciplinary committee on a strictly consultant basis if his services were requested. He could also perform as a group leader in helping students to learn to assume responsibility in such related areas of living as moral conduct, residence-hall government, constructive criticism, and habits of orderly living. The counselor would not only be concerned with helping the individual student to work out his problems, but he would also be very much concerned with the creation of a group atmosphere in which the student could develop to his maximum potentiality. The house counselor would be a participant in the group-living process, and if he lived in the residence he would probably have a much more intimate relationship with the students than would the counselor in a clinic. The example that he would set would, as a result, be of much importance, and he would be on the job at all hours of the day.

At Stephens College an interesting form is used to help to determine the interests of the dormitory students. A copy of the form that is used with freshmen is shown in Appendix 30.

At Stanford University the staff members at the women's residences must make out a report each time a student takes out a leave of absence, moves to another residence, or leaves permanently. A copy of this record form, which is retained as part of the student's permanent record, is shown in Appendix 31.

The size of any group greatly affects the social environment, and when several hundred students are crowded into one building the difficulties are greatly increased. The house counselor in a large dormitory would be concerned with discipline or the lack of it, but he would not be an enforcing agent. He would attempt to create a social environment such that the need for external disciplinary action would be greatly lessened. Such an environment would include an effective and well-planned program of student activities within and without the residence, a functioning democratic student government, and professional counseling facilities.

The counselor would also be concerned with the extent to which the



dining hall aided in the social education of the student. He would attempt to see that the group was a "living" group, so that the students might be active participants in the group process and to some extent share each other's living, rather than be a number of individuals each rigidly maintaining his own individuality and never really becoming members of a group. This dynamic group integration is much more likely to occur in a small group where even a problem concerned with eating becomes a shared problem that the whole group can attempt to solve.

It would be equally important that any disciplinary problem not be an isolated affair but a learning experience for the whole living group. If the students are actually functioning as a group, then a disciplinary problem will become the problem of the group. The solution of any such problem should be a total learning experience for the entire group, rather than a mandatory disciplinary and punitive action decided upon without its participation. A breach of discipline should be considered as a reaction not against the administration or even a fellow student, but rather against the group of which the offending student is a member. In such a situation the counselor would obviously have a role to play in attempting to help the student to see the meaning and the possible results of his action. He should not, however, have anything whatever to do with the implementation of any punishment. The counselor will be concerned with preventive and with curative measures, but not with punitive measures.

The group, through its representative, should have the authority and the responsibility to act or to recommend action to a higher, student-faculty, campus discipline committee. The capacity to act in a mature and professional manner will not be acquired by students overnight, and the counselor will help student leaders to be aware of the significance of their position and the responsibility of their office. The entire student group should also feel this responsibility so that they will consider carefully the individuals who may be elected to student leadership positions in the residence halls.

The house counselor, then, would appear to be much more of a group participant than is his clinical colleague. He is actually in the living situation, and as a personnel worker he must be concerned with the creation of a social environment so that the student may develop to the utmost of his potentialities. As one who lives in the residence hall he may come very close to being accepted as an active member of the living group. The extent to which he will be accepted will probably depend on his personality and the degree to which he is associated, in the minds of the students, with disciplinary and administrative functions. If such a relationship is achieved, he can be of invaluable assistance in the achievement of the objectives of the group. He must have the professional training such that

he can function as an effective counselor, and he should have available referral sources so that students can be referred to more appropriate services when the need arises. It would be assumed that his professional qualifications would include an awareness of his own limitations so that there would be no hesitation in the referral of students whenever there was any doubt about his own capacity to handle the case.

## THE ADMINISTRATION OF HOUSING AND DINING SERVICES

The number of "fingers in the pie" sometimes contributes to make the administration of college housing an exceedingly difficult process. The business manager or comptroller may think of the residence as a means of making money or, at the very least, as a part of the institution that will pay its own way. The academic dean, if he thinks of the residence at all, may think of it in terms of its contribution to the total educational offering of the institution. The personnel dean will see the residence hall as a valuable means of aiding in the total development, particularly the social development, of the student. The head of buildings and grounds may sometimes think of the residence as one of his major headaches. The residence may thus be considered as a means of making money, as a form of education, or as a structure of wood and stone and steel. An additional function of the residence, seen through the eyes of some less enlightened administrators and faculty members, is that of a place where students are housed and fed and kept under control.

The environment that the students will experience in the residence hall will be largely determined by the dominant administrative viewpoint with regard to the functions of residence halls. If the residences are operated on a money-making basis one of the most obvious places to economize is in the area of personnel services, especially in the dining room. There may be a desperate need for a counselor to help students to adjust to a difficult situation, but with such an administrative philosophy there will be little likelihood that the money will be forthcoming to hire one. The help hired will likely be cheap and nonprofessional. If the academician and disciplinary point of view prevails, there will be little concern with social education and student government. Rules will be established by the administration, and discipline will be of the punitive sort. It will be administered by the residence head or by a faculty disciplinary committee. Student offenders who have perpetrated a crime such as throwing a water-filled paper bag out of a window will be taken before a faculty disciplinary committee who will mete out the stated punishment for such a situation. There will likely be little administrative or faculty concern about the residence environment, which may be such that the only in-

teresting extracurricular activity that the students can find is the tossing of such water-filled bags. If the buildings-and-grounds philosophy prevails, the students who live in the building will be secondary, and they may be considered as necessary evils who help to damage a valuable piece of property.

If, however, the personnel point of view prevails throughout the institution, then it will be understood that a number of different administrators are reasonably enough interested in the operation of the residence halls. While the recognition of this legitimate interest will affect the administration of the buildings, it will be paramount in the minds of the administrators that the only basic reason that the residence halls are maintained by the institution is that they can contribute to the education and the welfare of the students. They are there to serve the students rather than the university. While the residence hall will not be considered as a means of making money, it will be realized that a dormitory that cuts heavily into the financial assets of the institution may be impossible to maintain; while it will be assumed that the building is for the students, it will also be recognized that the head of buildings and grounds has a legitimate interest in what the students may be doing to the building; while the residence hall will not be considered as a means of maintaining control, it will be assumed that the residence hall should contribute to the social education of each student so that it will become the personal responsibility of each member of the group to see that there is a minimum need for outside control.

The administration of housing has been made more complicated by the fact that on many campuses there is a sharp distinction between men's residences and women's residences. Historically, the social education aspect of college residences has been emphasized and developed to a much greater extent in women's dormitories than in men's dormitories. Quite frequently they are under different administrative control. On many campuses a dean of men will be responsible for the men's dormitories while a dean of women will be responsible for the women's dormitories. It sometimes happens that there is very little cooperation between the two, and the dean of women may very often be thinking of the dormitory as a means of social education for the women students, while the dean of men is thinking of the men's dormitory as a place where the men are fed, sheltered, and kept under control. There would seem to be no reason why such a separation of control should not be effective, as long as the work of both housing directors is coordinated and under the direction of a personnel dean. It is unlikely that the student will be well served when the two administrators work apart, or when they are both directly responsible to the president or to an academic dean.



For a proper administration of housing Wrenn<sup>11</sup> has suggested that: A director of housing, responsible to a dean or vice-president for the proper functioning of all housing, should have on his staff an expert in building operation and maintenance. The man or woman so appointed as a building expert should be one of whom the controller approves, but he will report to the housing director. The financing of the building, original cost and maintenance, should be the joint function of dean and controller, both reporting to the president.

If such a unified plan is not adopted, and the very tangible but secondary physical aspect is allowed to dominate the educational, then one has an example of structure before function, a situation which social architecture abhors.

At Harvard College the freshmen are all housed in the "Yard" under the supervision of the Dean of Freshmen, who is responsible to the college Dean of Students. All of the upperclassmen, other than those who live at home or with relatives, are housed in seven residential houses. The housemaster in each house is responsible for the operation of the house. He is in effect the head of the family, but he does not have authority in disciplinary matters. This is the task of the senior tutor, who carries the authority of the college dean of students and has the title of Assistant Dean of Students. The senior tutor is the executive officer, and in certain situations the housemaster is subordinate to him. There are thus seven assistant deans of students who are concerned with both the disciplining and the counseling function.

At the University of Minnesota there are three administrative officers concerned with housing. The Director of the Student Housing Bureau is responsible to the Dean of Students while the Director of the Men's Dormitories and the Director of the Women's Dormitories are responsible to the Service Enterprises Department. The three directors work together closely on referral of students and on other common matters.

At the Massachusetts Institute of Technology an associate dean of students, in charge of housing, is responsible to the Dean of Students. At the University of Illinois the director of the Housing Division is responsible to the Dean of Students. The Manager of Residence Halls is the administrative officer in charge of college housing. He is under the administrative supervision of the comptroller.

The administration of college housing will obviously be affected by the size of the institution and by the proportion of students who live at home or with relatives or in off-campus housing. In a small college the personnel dean will probably be directly responsible for all housing, whereas in a large institution the personnel dean may have numerous other personnel workers functioning under his control. When a large proportion of the student body who are not living at home or with relatives are forced to

<sup>11</sup> Wrenn, C. Gilbert, *Student Personnel Work in Colleges*, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951, pp. 317-318.



live in off-campus housing the administrative problem is further complicated. It is obviously more difficult to render a service to a hundred students who are scattered over a city in thirty different private residences than it is when they are all on the campus under one or two roofs. Whatever the situation might be, there would appear to be three essential principles in the administration of the housing of college students:

1. There is first the absolute necessity that all housing workers be true personnel workers, who have the educative aspects of housing uppermost in their minds. In addition, they must have the professional training that can help them to make the residence an educative unit.

2. It is essential that all work dealing with college housing be coordinated and under the direction of a personnel dean.

3. It is necessary that the personnel dean work with the comptroller on the problems of financing the college residences, and with the academic dean on the problems connected with their educational program. It is also highly desirable that the administrator who is responsible for the curricular offering in the classroom should contribute to the educational offering in the residences.

## CHAPTER 11 *Student Aid*

Student aid in American higher education is obviously a personnel service, but it is by no means a recent innovation. Students have been receiving financial assistance and students have been working their way through college from the very beginning of American higher education. Harvard records the first self-supporting student as being Zachariah Brigden, of the class of 1657. A committee of the American Council on Education points out<sup>1</sup> how he paid his expenses with "siluer, sugar, wheatt, malte, Indian, a hooge, a quarter of beast, butter, 3 lb. of Candell, raises, a paire of girtes, and a bush of parsnapes." On December 31, 1654, there was "geuen him by ringinge the bell and waytinge—£1 2s. 6d." The next year he received for "waytinge in the hall" 12s. 6d. a quarter, for three successive quarters, after which he was paid "on quarter for a schollership 18s. 9d." A year later he was credited "by his wages 50 shillings and a schollership—£3 15s."

Thus, when an extremely small proportion of the youthful population of the country was going to college, there was a need for student financial aid, and some form of financial assistance was being provided. With the tremendously increased college population today, and with the prevailing concept that a college education is the right of almost every American, the need for financial assistance for students has multiplied a hundredfold.

One of the popular misconceptions about American education is that it is "free." Actually, the higher the student advances in school the more his school attendance costs him, and this applies to public as well as to private education. Family income is one of the major factors in determining how far a student advances in school. Warner<sup>2</sup> has stated that out of every 1,000 boys and girls in the United States, 580 reach the third year in high school, and half of them are taking courses leading to college. Of

<sup>1</sup> *Financial Assistance for College Students*, American Council on Education Studies, 1946, Series VI, Vol. X, No. 7, Washington, pp. 1-2.

<sup>2</sup> Warner, W. Lloyd, *Who Shall be Educated*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944, p. 156.

these, only 150 enter college, and only 70 graduate. There are obviously many reasons other than financial for dropouts. Lack of motivation and interest causes the withdrawal of many students, and there is still a minimum mental capacity necessary if a student is to be able to graduate from even the most liberal of colleges. If it is correct, however, as stated by the President's Commission on Higher Education,<sup>3</sup> that 32 per cent of the population has sufficient ability to complete advanced liberal or specialized professional education, then it is obvious that far more than the seventy students cited above should graduate from college.

There is no lack of evidence to indicate that economic causes keep many young people away from higher education. The United States Commissioner of Education<sup>4</sup> has stated:

Out of every one thousand children finishing the fifth grade together, 900 have the ability to go through high school, yet only 505 do so. Out of that same thousand finishing the fifth grade 320 have the ability to go through college; only 112 do so. Thus, every year, the Nation is failing to train 44 per cent of those who ought to finish high school and 65 per cent of those who could profit from college.

McGrath states further<sup>5</sup> that low parental income is the principal reason why seven out of ten persons having college abilities never finish an undergraduate course of studies. He points out that a New York study showed in 1939 that seven out of every ten children in that state could not afford college. It is easier for a low-ability boy from a wealthy home to go to college than it is for a highly talented boy from a low-income family.

There is no doubt that the child who comes from a low-income home will be less likely to graduate from college than will the one who comes from a high-income home. It is also evident that many of the high-income college students have less capacity and desire for college work than have many low-income youths who are unable to attend college because of lack of money. American society cannot continue to squander its educational resources on students who benefit little from a higher education while refusing to offer that education to those students who would contribute most to society. When we look at the social class groups from which the college graduates come we can see the relationship between income and education. Harris<sup>6</sup> quotes a survey revealing that, whereas 72 per cent of the upper social class attended college, only 58 per cent of the middle class, 16 per cent of the lower middle class, and less than 1 per

<sup>3</sup> Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals*, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947, p. 41.

<sup>4</sup> McGrath, E. C., "On the Outside—Looking In," *School Life*, 32:56-59, January, 1950.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 56.

<sup>6</sup> Harris, Seymour E., *The Market for College Graduates*, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1949, p. 15.

cent of the lower class attended. There is general agreement with Gallagher<sup>7</sup> on the relationship of family income to attendance at college:

The evidence of all studies made thus far—studies of urban and rural population, in all parts of the nation, and at the several levels of academic ability from the near-genius down to the average high school graduate—converge in a single verdict: at whatever level of academic ability, and whatever the social and racial background of the student, parental income prevents at least as many students from going to college as are able to attend.

There is thus a very definite correlation between family income and college attendance, but there is no such correlation between income and excellence of work at college. The low-income student may often bring to college a seriousness of purpose not indicated by his wealthier fellow student, but many of the low-income students who have managed to get to college are forced to drop out long before they can receive their degree. Many of those who do manage to hold their head above water do not in later years look back upon their college days with too much nostalgia. The education that they achieved was often strictly limited to studying their books and their professors long enough to get passing grades. That part of a college education which often contributes the most in the way of learning experiences, the out-of-class activities, was a luxury that the working student could not afford. The student who is forced to work forty hours a week to keep himself in college may even develop rather cynical attitudes with regard to the values of a higher education.

For every low-income student who gets into college there are many who are unable even to consider going to college. Hundreds of thousands of veterans of the Second World War who successfully completed their college work were able to experience college life only because of Federal aid, and tens of thousands of these same GI's had never even considered a college education until they heard about the Serviceman's Readjustment Act, better known as the GI Bill of Rights. In a study of college admissions made a few years ago by the American Council on Education,<sup>8</sup> it was estimated that economic factors influenced 70 per cent of the applications for college admittance in 1947.

### WHO SHALL RECEIVE FINANCIAL AID?

There is no question about the need for financial aid, if we are to educate in institutions of higher learning all those young people who would benefit from such an education. There is some question, however, about

<sup>7</sup> Gallagher, Buell G., "The Necessity for Federal Aid to Students in Higher Education," *Educational Record*, 31:46-47, January, 1950.

<sup>8</sup> *On Getting into College*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1949, p. 45.



the extent to which that need should be met, or even if it should be met at all. Those Americans who have an individualistic philosophy retain the Horatio Alger viewpoint. They feel that the individual alone has the responsibility for supplying himself with the financial means so that he may be able to attend a college.

This point of view is not representative of the social and political philosophy of American life today, and an increasing number of citizens maintain that society must undertake to provide a higher education for all those youths who will benefit society to a greater degree because of their higher education. The so-called Jacksonian view is a more liberal interpretation of this statement. It holds, generally, that the privileges of higher education should be available for all just as the privileges of a high-school education are available for all. McGrath<sup>9</sup> expressed this point of view when he proposed that Federal appropriations be allotted among the states on the basis of a formula combining the number of persons of college age and the number of high-school graduates within each state. Scholarships would be awarded on the basis of objective measures of academic promise and ability. In the operation of the scholarship there would be no form of discrimination based on race, sex, religion, national origin, citizenship, or residence.

The Jeffersonian view, however, is that only the most capable students should be eligible for aid, although all those who are capable would be offered a higher education regardless of their financial means. Those who hold this view see higher education as training an intellectual aristocracy. Colleges and universities would be for scholars only, but they would be for all scholars regardless of their wealth or poverty.

It is obvious that there are in the United States institutions which hold to the Jacksonian viewpoint and those which accept the Jeffersonian point of view, although none offer the financial aid originally indicated by both Jackson and Jefferson. Such institutions as Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Chicago, and Stanford appear to feel that a higher education is primarily an intellectual endeavor and should be limited to those scholarly individuals who have a high capacity for abstract reasoning. State institutions, on the other hand, come much closer to the Jacksonian view since they are compelled to admit practically every student in their state who has graduated from an acceptable high school. This obviously means that a large proportion of those who are admitted to state institutions would hardly qualify as the Harvard type of scholar, or at least as the Harvard picture of the student who graces its campus.

There would seem to be no reason why anyone should wish to do away with one of these types of institutions and force all higher institutions to follow one pattern. All qualified institutions of higher education should

<sup>9</sup> McGrath, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

have the financial means so that they can admit all students who will benefit from a higher education; but the individual institution should be the one to interpret the meaning of the term "benefit."

In interpreting the phrase "all those who will benefit from it," one must think of the individual student as a member of his society. There is an increasing concern as to whether society will, in the long run, benefit if there is to be an indiscriminate policy of higher education for all. It has been pointed out on many occasions that, while there is little likelihood that a higher education for living will have a negative effect on society, there is some reason to believe that a policy of a higher education for all may have disastrous effects if the purpose of that education is to make a living. It should be understood that, if the dream of a higher education for all is to be beneficial, the benefit will not come in a higher occupational status but rather in an increased enjoyment in living while maintaining the same occupational status. The United States may eventually see the day when future streetcar conductors and factory workers will be enjoying a liberal-college education but will have neither the intention nor the desire to move away from their planned occupation. At the present time it is somewhat unusual to see a factory worker who has a college degree. When this does happen it is generally assumed that the worker must have some other negative qualities, since he has risen no higher in the occupational hierarchy. When the philosophy of higher education as being desirable for all is actually put into practice, it is essential that it no longer have an occupational orientation. If it continues to carry the occupational meaning that it does at present, higher education cannot be for all without complete social chaos.

On this question Harris<sup>10</sup> writes: "Since the market for educated men and women is likely to be saturated within the next 10 to 20 years, subsidies should be used not for the purpose of increasing numbers seeking professional and similar outlets, but in order to increase the reservoir from which the talented may be selected."

Warner<sup>11</sup> has also indicated that there is clear evidence that our high schools and colleges are educating too many young people for the available professional and managerial positions, and that this will lead to class frustration and loss of class solidarity.

There are four basic criteria that should be used in the determination of whether or not a student is to receive financial aid. One obviously is the student's financial need, another is his capacity to do college work, and still another is his motivation, his interest, and his desire for a college education. The fourth criterion is the one most difficult to determine, but it is no less vital than the others. There would seem to be little point in

<sup>10</sup> Harris, *op. cit.*, p. 72.

<sup>11</sup> Warner, *op. cit.*, p. 158.

providing a higher education for one who will use that education to destroy the society that provides it. While aid should not, of course, be provided as it would in a totalitarian country only to those who will aid in the maintenance of the *status quo*, it would seem reasonable to say that assistance should be given only to those who will ultimately use their education for the improvement of society. Bowen<sup>12</sup> has voiced this feeling: "There is one thought which the institution, the corporation, or the donor has in mind when such financial assistance is given, and that is the ultimate improvement of society through the better education of the recipient of the aid, who is expected to render a more effective type of service to society."

Student aid is one of the most pertinent questions to be faced today by those who are concerned not only with the future of higher education in America, but with the future of American society. Student aid cannot be dissociated from the philosophy of the people of the country. What happens in the next decade with regard to financial aid for students in higher education will be a fairly valid barometer of the trends in the political thinking of the people of the United States.

There is little doubt that the problem of financial aid to enable worthy students to attend college and remain in college until graduation will require an increasing amount of attention from college personnel workers. It is obviously a personnel problem closely linked with the educational objectives and the educational philosophy of the institution. Student financial aid may be under the direction of one personnel officer, but it is a problem that should obviously concern all personnel workers, including teachers.

## THE ADMINISTRATION OF FINANCIAL AID TO STUDENTS

A financial problem is obviously a personal problem, and student aid is one of the major personnel services provided by a college or university. As such, it should be the responsibility of the major personnel administrative officer on the campus. In a smaller college the administrative and the service functions, as with other personnel services, would probably have to be combined. In a large institution it is highly desirable that all the agencies concerned with student aid be coordinated in one central office under the direction of a director of financial aid. He, in turn, would be responsible to the chief personnel officer.

It would not be the function of one director of financial aid to legislate university policy, however, since in a large institution it would be practically impossible to have one "plan" that would apply to all colleges,

<sup>12</sup> Bowen, H. A., "Financial Aid to Students in Negro Land-grant Colleges," *School and Society*, 68:156, Sept. 4, 1948.



schools, and departments. The financial officer would see that the policies decided upon were carried out, but the determination of such policies should be in the hands of a committee representative of the entire institution. In a large university this committee would likely be composed of the deans of the schools and colleges, the treasurer, the director of admissions, the registrar, the dean of students, the director of student aid, and other personnel officers, such as the director of housing. Student representatives should also be included, although this may not be so practical or desirable as in some other situation. A good deal of the information received from applicants for financial aid is of a highly confidential nature and, as such, should not be available for other students. While there may be some question as to the use of students in the allocation of funds, there would seem to be no reason why students should not participate in the determination of the student-aid policy.

Efforts must be made to increase the financial aid that will be available, and this must be followed by decisions as to the most effective ways and means by which this aid might be used. This would be the task of a central committee, and the director of financial aid would obviously be one of the most important members of this committee. He would be expected to see that committee decisions were carried out, and that the students were aided in their understanding and use of the financial help available. This latter task is generally thought of as financial counseling, although the actual counseling itself would be concerned with aiding the student to achieve a degree of insight, so that he could make a rational approach to the question of the financing of his education, and make use of the information and advice that might be available in the office of the director of student aid. Quite frequently the financial counselor discovers problems of a fairly complicated nature that require the services of a therapist. If he cannot function as a therapist, referral will be necessary.

The functions of the financial counselor as listed by Risty are:<sup>13</sup>

1. In consultation with educational-vocational counselors, to help the student decide for himself whether he should make the necessary sacrifices of time and money to obtain college training. . . .
2. To help the student plan his over-all financial program associated with college attendance in accordance with his earning capacity and his other financial resources
3. To counsel the student wisely in helping him meet financial emergencies and problems related to his needs
4. To help the student make and execute feasible plans for meeting his financial obligations incurred while in college

<sup>13</sup> Risty, George B., "Financial Counseling," in E. C. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1949, p. 224.



Of these four tasks probably the first and third would call for counseling in the therapeutic sense, as it is used in this book, while the other two tasks would be financial guidance that would be given to the student on the assumption that he was a rational individual capable of making his own decisions and wisely using the information and advice provided for him.

There are at least three basic problems that face a student-aid committee and the director of student aid. The first of these is the securing of funds for scholarships, loans, grants, and other forms of assistance. The college or university, particularly the private institution, cannot supply the funds from its own resources. The very existence of a private institution may depend on the extent to which it is able to offer assistance to its prospective students. Professors should be interested in the problem of student aid, since their salaries may sometimes depend on the financial help given to students so that they may attend college.

The second problem has to do with helping students on the campus, and high-school seniors who are prospective students, to become aware of the financial aid available and, in addition, helping those for whom aid is not available. Thousands of young people who never come to college because of financial difficulty actually have resources available for them, and large sums of student-aid money remain unused each year. Thousands of other students who are in college, however, are desperately in need of financial aid, but none will be available for them.

If this dual problem is to be solved effectively there must be personnel services which will provide the counseling or the information necessary to alleviate the financial difficulty. The types of student aid described in this chapter can be effective for an individual student only if he is made aware of them. In every college there should be a counselor who specializes in having all the up-to-date information with regard to financial aid available for students. An organized effort should be made by this individual by means of group discussions and individual sessions to be sure that all students know what aid is available for them. This is a vital and essential personnel service, but the more difficult task is the counseling of the student for whom no aid is available. If the personnel worker who is concerned with financial aid is to be helpful with such students, he must be a counselor.

The student-aid office cannot perform a complete service if it can do nothing other than offer information on the financial aid that is available. As with the vocational counselor, however, it is often difficult to combine in one man the training, the skill, and the personality that make the therapist, together with the continually changing mass of information that must be obtained by the individual who provides information on financial aid.

Ideally the student-aid office in even a small college should combine the services of three people—a personnel-minded receptionist and two counselors. The special field for one counselor would be in the area of therapy, while for the other it would be in the direction of information on student financial aid.

Many institutions issue special bulletins and pamphlets explaining the financial aid available for students. Purdue University, for example, issues a 32-page booklet entitled "Financial Aid for Students." In large universities the student-aid program can be very complex, and a booklet of this sort is essential.

The final problem has to do with the allocation of the various means of student aid over which the institution has control. Financial personnel workers must frequently make decisions that will mean that one student will receive aid, while several others will not. It is often a difficult decision to make, but it will be more valid if it is made by a committee rather than by one individual. The committee members must obviously be mature individuals who know how to maintain confidential information. In considering the allocation of financial aid, numerous items must be considered. Such items, for example, as high school attended, courses taken, rank in class, academic record, test scores, activities record, recommendations, and occupation and income of parents must all be considered in the allocation of funds. Academic achievement is usually a major factor. The young man or woman whose academic achievement in high school is quite low will find it extremely difficult to receive any form of financial assistance.

Forms used by financial-aid committees usually provide for information of this sort. A copy of an application for freshman scholarships used at Boston University is shown in Appendix 32.

## TYPES OF FINANCIAL AID

1. *Scholarships.* A scholarship is a grant of money offered to worthy students to help them to acquire an education. It does not need to be repaid in money or in service. Ability is a major consideration in the granting of scholarships, and in some cases need is a minor consideration. A scholarship may be considered as a reward for, and a recognition of, superior work accomplished by superior students. It frequently happens, however, that while the honor received by an individual student is quite deserved, the money that goes along with the honor is quite unnecessary. Society, in the long run, might benefit more if money awards were to be granted only to those students who are in definite need of financial assistance if they are to be able to continue their college education. It would seem reasonable to say that achievement should be granted some honorable recognition, but it appears to be equally unreasonable to grant funds to

students who have little need for those funds, while other students, not quite so capable, but nevertheless superior students, cannot continue their college education because of lack of funds.

While it is true that millions of dollars in scholarships go unclaimed every year, the great majority of colleges and universities have a very limited number of scholarships to offer to incoming students. In 1941 the U.S. Office of Education reported that, in a sample study, only 5 per cent of the enrolled students received scholarship aid, and that the average scholarship was only \$165.<sup>14</sup> Few colleges can offer the scholarship aid of such institutions as DePauw, Chicago, or Harvard. DePauw has a large endowment for scholarships and can give real help to 50 to 100 people. Harvard University with its national scholarships may bring in each year about fifty students who otherwise would not go to a first-rate institution.<sup>15</sup>

Williams<sup>16</sup> has referred to the main considerations in the administering of scholarships as being the number of scholarships needed, the equitable distribution among departments, the purpose of each scholarship, and the over-all objectives. Specific principles are given as:

1. The function of the scholarship program and of each scholarship fund should be carefully defined, agreed to, and accepted by all operating agencies.
2. Distribution should be equitable, in accordance with definition of purpose, the fields of study represented in the institution, the size of enrollment in various fields, and the desire of the university to make contributions in specified areas.
3. Flexibility in operating procedures must be maintained.
4. Detailed procedures used in selecting recipients and awarding scholarships should be carefully defined, agreed to, and adhered to.
5. The academic records of scholarship recipients should be carefully evaluated at regular intervals.
6. The function and responsibility of each university office concerned in the scholarship program should be clearly defined in order to provide desired results.
7. All educational and ancillary services performed for the benefit of scholarship recipients should be carried out by regularly established university agencies, which perform the same services for other students in the university.

<sup>14</sup> Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. II, *Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity*, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947, pp. 46-47.

<sup>15</sup> Havighurst, Robert J., "Scholarships for Able High School Students," *School Review*, 51:71, February, 1946.

<sup>16</sup> Williams, Robert L., "The Administration of Scholarships," *Journal of Higher Education*, 17:97-99, February, 1946.



8. Scholarships supported by general university funds should not favor students in any field of study except when specifically so designated by the governing board of the university.

9. No one pattern of administrative agencies and procedures can be described as "best" for several universities.

10. The simplest procedures that will be effective in accomplishing the desired results will, in the long run, be the most acceptable.

Scholarships contributed by the university may be supported from general university funds, by endowment funds with only the interest to be spent, or from donated funds, where a certain sum is contributed to the university usually on the understanding that the money will be spent for a specific purpose and at a specific time. Scholarship funds are available from many outside sources. Alumni frequently contribute heavily to their alma mater, and various clubs and groups, such as chambers of commerce, provide funds for capable but needy students. A few of the sources of these funds, Rhodes, Carnegie, Rockefeller, and Ford, for example, are well known throughout the country, but Feingold<sup>17</sup> points up the fact that the greater number of scholarships and other awards available are relatively unknown to students and to the great majority of college personnel workers.

There are many different corporation scholarships, and new ones are continually being announced. The National Research Council in 1946 reported that 302 industrial companies were supporting about 1,800 scholarships and fellowships, or grants for research, in colleges and universities.<sup>18</sup> Corporations are showing an increasing interest in the development of research ability, especially in the area of the physical sciences. The Science Talent Search, which was sponsored by the Westinghouse Electric Corporation, may be mentioned as an example of this interest.

Typical of the corporation scholarships of the past decade was that of the Pepsi-Cola Company.<sup>19</sup> This scholarship paid full tuition plus \$25 a month while the winner was in college. Transportation between his home and the college was paid once a year. Seniors in each competing high school elected up to 5 per cent of their class to participate. The elected students took preliminary tests in the fall of the year in their own schools. These tests were prepared and scored by the College Entrance Examination Board. The highest fifteen students in each state had their fees paid to take the regular supervised tests of the College Entrance Examination Board. In each state the highest two students on this test who needed financial help

<sup>17</sup> Feingold, S. Norman, *Scholarships, Fellowships and Loans*, Boston: Bellman Publishing Company, 1949.

<sup>18</sup> *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals*, pp. 47-48.

<sup>19</sup> Stalnaker, John M., "Pepsi-Cola Scholarship Board Activities," *School and Society*, 66:396-397, Nov. 22, 1947.



won a four-year scholarship, and the next ten won the college entrance awards, which paid \$50 upon the winner's entrance to college. At least 119 four-year scholarships were awarded in 1948. The large number of participating students showed the wide interest created by the awards, and it was also indicative of the financial need of thousands of high-school students.

On this question of the raising of funds, McGrath<sup>20</sup> has stated that the student and his family should assume a fair share of the costs, private philanthropy and the churches should give liberally, and the treasuries of the various states should make allocations of funds. Such a statement as this, of course, raises many debatable issues. Should states provide financial aid for students attending private institutions while, at the same time, they maintain state schools providing the same program, or is this the same as giving government aid to private secondary schools? If the churches are going to "contribute liberally," does this mean that we are encouraging the restriction of financial aid on a religious basis?

In earlier years many scholarships were restricted to certain groups, orders, sexes, or religions. Donors frequently selected the type of person to whom the scholarship was to be awarded. This was obviously a poor practice, and frequently left the institution in a difficult or embarrassing situation. However, it might be that a restricted fund is better than none at all. If an individual is willing to donate funds for scholarships for white male Catholics, is it better to accept the money and thus provide an education for some white male Catholics, or to refuse to accept it and thus deny a higher education to some worthy young people?

Mention should also be made here of the rather unusual "leadership scholarships" that are offered by the athletic departments of many colleges and universities. The term "athletic" was formerly used to describe these awards, but this much more accurate description has been changed to "leadership," a term that is sometimes quite ludicrous. It is unfortunate that the great majority of fine young men who deserve these awards should be saddled with a few individuals whose leadership capacity is strictly limited to the confines of a football field. The author is aware of a situation where an interviewing faculty committee was somewhat dismayed to find that the recipient of a leadership scholarship could do little more, verbally at least, than answer yes and no!

Few colleges and universities can offer the scholarships and other forms of student aid that they would like to offer if they could, and in many cases the college must stand by helplessly and watch students of superior ability drop out because of financial difficulties. Since the student-aid office is often the place where the student is informed of the impossibility of his receiving financial assistance, the need for a trained counselor in such an office is obvious. The offering of a scholarship may solve the problem for

<sup>20</sup> McGrath, *op. cit.*, pp. 57-58.

one student, but the information that no scholarship is available will add to the problems of another student. All is not lost for the student who must withdraw from college because of lack of funds, but a good deal of harm may result if counseling is not available "on the spot," since the greatest need, and the greatest likelihood of a positive outcome, will be at the moment the student receives the crushing news that no aid is available.

Not all colleges can contribute financial assistance to the same extent. In 1951-1952 the State College of Washington offered \$57,000 in scholarships, exclusive of fellowship grants, for a total enrollment of 4,183 students; Colorado State College of Education offered \$22,297 for a total enrollment of 1,708 full-time students; the University of Minnesota, in 1950-1951, offered \$82,004.64 (557 scholarships) for a total enrollment of 22,080 students; Columbia University Teachers College, in 1951-1952, offered \$50,000 in scholarships and other forms of aid for approximately 7,000 students. In the same year the Massachusetts Institute of Technology offered \$188,311 in scholarships for 3,100 students, while Harvard College offered approximately \$560,000 in scholarships for 1950-1951. Yale contributed the astonishing sum of \$1,497,000 in scholarship aid during 1950-1951.

Few presidents could echo the words of Radcliffe's President Jordan in his annual report to the trustees in 1948-1949: <sup>21</sup>

A young woman of high scholastic distinction whose financial needs are great may safely assume that our scholarship funds are adequate to finance her during her four years here if she is able to supplement these stipends with summer savings. No really insurmountable problem arises, in fact, for the roughly 40 percent of the College who are sufficiently strong academically to maintain their standing as candidates for the degree with honors.

It should be added that in the few years since this report was made the scholarship funds that may then have seemed sufficient are no longer considered as adequate, and efforts are being made to increase them.

It is rather interesting to note, however, that the President of Radcliffe was aware that even in such a wealthy college there was a desperate need for funds to assist the average student, who, although she might be no genius, was as important in a democracy as was her more intelligent sister: <sup>22</sup>

. . . we need, desperately, more income which may be used to assist poor and worthy young women, not quite of scholarship standing, who are none the less valued and most promising members of our student body. Our own students understand this problem and have undertaken to help us meet it by their own contributions.

<sup>21</sup> Radcliffe College, *Reports of Officers*, 1948-1949, pp. 6-7.

<sup>22</sup> Radcliffe College, *Reports of Officers*, 1949-1950, p. 9.

2. *Fellowships.* Fellowships are grants for graduate study. They are usually for much larger sums than are scholarships, which are frequently much higher in honor than they are in financial remuneration. Fellowships are given to students who have already proved their scholarly and research capacity at the undergraduate level. Many fellowships, such as the Fulbright, include expenses for travel so that research can be carried on at institutions in other countries.

3. *Loans.* A loan carries with it the more traditional implication that a higher education is not a right but a privilege that should be paid for. There are some students who resent the "handout" implications of an outright grant, and for their own self-respect would prefer a loan, although many student-aid officers feel that such students are steadily decreasing in numbers. There is no doubt also that the recipient of a loan gathers valuable business experience involved in a loan transaction. On the other hand, a large loan places a heavy burden on the shoulders of a young graduate who will not likely be in a position to repay the loan until some years after graduation. The maximum load that can be carried depends entirely upon the individual student, but it would seem reasonable to say that a short-term loan that is necessary to carry a student over a period of a few months, or even a loan that will finance him through his last year of college, would be worth while. On the other hand, there would be little point in a freshman without any future means of support requesting a loan, and there would be little likelihood that it would be granted even if he did seek it.

Counseling is often necessary to help students to become more realistic about the financial facts of life. Certainly a freshman who has no visible means of support beyond the first semester of college must be helped to prepare for a future that may include withdrawal from college. Previous counseling in the admissions office may result in some students deciding against entering college, but many others will enter even if they can only finance their education for a few months. Some of these students will contact the student-aid office for assistance, and many of them will be in need of counseling.

While the granting of loans should be humane, it should nevertheless be businesslike. The two major criteria in determining eligibility for a loan are usually the financial need of the applicant and his potential ability to repay the loan. Factors taken into account in determining his capacity to repay are the health of the student, his academic capacity, his integrity and reliability, and evidence of his own attempts to help himself. After a decision to grant the loan has been made, often the only endorsement required is the signature of the student, although some personnel officers feel a cosignature should also be required. A college is not being too magnanimous with this liberal policy, since the evidence tends to show



that a student loan is one of the safest investments that the institution can make.

In the last five years the State College of Washington, for example, suffered a loss of \$3,000, or 2 per cent, on \$150,000 granted in loans. Colorado State College suffered a loss of 0.019 per cent on \$41,914.43 granted in loans. At Harvard the loss has been less than 3 per cent on \$350,000 to \$400,000 granted in loans since 1947. At the University of Illinois \$253,973 was granted in loans to 4,077 individuals; over the last five years the rate of loss has been less than 0.5 per cent. The loss on loans at Yale University is less than 0.1 per cent. Loans at Yale usually aggregate between \$250,000 to \$300,000 a year. Most of these are not due until five years after the student's graduation. Many loans are repaid well before the date due, with the bulk at or near the time set for repayment. At the University of Minnesota the interest income on loans far exceeds the amount of the charge-off.

Even with this security, however, it is obvious that every institution should have an effective follow-up plan, so that former students may know that their alma mater is interested in them as well as in the repayment of the loan. At the State College of Washington, as soon as the loan is one month overdue, a follow-up is made by telephone, followed at monthly intervals by a postal card, a letter, and another letter. At the end of the year the cosigner of the loan is notified. The head resident and references are notified as soon as the loan is delinquent one month. Delinquent loans are charged interest at 6 per cent, records are tagged, and no transcripts are sent until the loan is repaid. At the University of Minnesota a field representative contacts the local state debtors. In addition loans are followed up by telephone, letter, and tracer. In extreme cases the accounts are turned over to collection agencies.

At Yale University, at the time a loan is granted, every effort is made to impress upon the student the terms under which the loan is advanced. Just prior to the borrower's graduation the Bursar discusses his total loans with him and urges him to inaugurate an installment plan of repayment as soon as his financial circumstances permit. The suggestion is repeated at least once a year by letter as the due date approaches. Each student enrolled at Yale has to have a bond filed in his behalf by a sponsor—usually his parents or guardian—under the terms of which the bondsman agrees to pay any University charge that the student incurs and fails to meet himself. In the event the student cannot meet the note at maturity, the bondsman is sometimes called upon to make payment under the terms of his bond.

At the Massachusetts Institute of Technology the student signs notes with the Bursar in units of \$50 at the time of the loan. The first due date is six months after graduation, with the next note due six months later, and



so on. The Bursar sends out interest notes periodically, and makes extensions if necessary. The interest rate is 1 per cent from the time that the note is signed.

At Harvard the Bursar follows up loans. He sends out a semiannual bill on loans outstanding, giving interest charges. As long as the student keeps in touch with the college and keeps making payments, however small, it takes no action against him. If he ignores dues, or appears to be running from his obligation, a collection agency takes action against him.

At the University of Illinois the general business office does the follow-up of loans. Usually it is simply a matter of reminding the student that a loan is due. It is only rarely that the business office has to sue an individual, but it does happen.

Most loans offered in colleges and universities are either the revolving type of loan, which enables the institution to use both the interest and the principal of the loan fund, or the restricted type of loan, which allows the institution to use only the income earned on the loan fund.

Every institution should have an emergency loan fund which can grant small sums, usually not exceeding \$100, with a minimum of red tape. Such funds have been particularly valuable since the advent of the GI Bill of Rights. Nearly every institution has had hundreds of veterans who were in immediate need of a small short-term loan to carry them over until their government checks arrived. The biggest demand for loans usually comes in the middle of the academic year, when the students have exhausted their summer's savings and cannot finance their education for the rest of the year.

Some loan funds are for larger sums. An example of such a fund is the Charles H. Howard Loan Fund at Boston University. Students may borrow considerable sums of money from this fund to be repaid ten years after graduation. The student pays 2 per cent on the loan while in college and after graduation. In addition, the student must take out an insurance policy which guarantees payment at the end of the ten years. A copy of the application form used by students requesting assistance under this plan is shown in Appendix 33.

4. *Work plans.* The continuance of the college education of a large proportion of the student body is dependent on part-time employment, and colleges have a wide variety of plans for aiding students through employment. Many personnel workers question the wisdom of part-time employment, particularly if it is an excessive work load. Although the University of Chicago considers fifteen hours a week to be reasonable, it is obvious that for many students who are not doing too well academically fifteen hours would be excessive. On the other hand, thousands of students work far more than fifteen hours a week. The author knows of at least several students who work a full shift of forty hours a week in addition to

carrying a full academic load. While all would probably say that such a work load is unwise, it is difficult to set an arbitrary work load limit without penalizing the individual with drive, energy, and motivation. Why should a college refuse an education to a worthy and capable student, who is willing to work forty hours a week serving behind a bar so that he can experience a higher education? It is true, of course, that one may question the sort of college education that is experienced by the student who rushes from his class to his job, and finds time in a few extra hours to study enough to pass his examinations and hand in his assignments. Such a student will almost certainly experience nothing of the hundred and one out-of-class activities that in the long run may be the most important part of his college education. On the other hand, it is equally true that the working student may have a more mature education, even though much of it will not be experienced on a campus, than will his less mature and wealthier fellow student who becomes class president, performs in the class play, and takes part in numerous other activities. It would seem that in the present day no institution should deny a college education to the highly motivated student just because the student's financial situation is such that he must work what, to his softer brothers, are appalling hours. While we may deplore the lack of "education" in such a college education, we must also accept the fact that the college degree has become the union ticket to a better job. We should not deny the union ticket, even though we do make it plain that we do not feel that the working student is experiencing much of an education merely by attending classes.

There is no evidence to indicate that scholarship suffers through at least a normal part-time work load. This is not unreasonable, since the working student is often the capable and motivated individual, and the hours that he puts in at labor are probably spent in lighter forms of recreation by many of the nonworking students. There is no doubt, however, that there is less participation in out-of-class college activities, and there is a very real danger that the physical and mental health of the student may be endangered.

Kandel<sup>23</sup> feels that society does not benefit when the student has to work his way through college:

... but the more important question whether society is not sacrificing a great deal of ability by failing to provide support for talented students who are compelled for financial reasons to work while in school and college. It is obvious that there is no genuine equality of opportunity between those who must take part-time jobs and those who need not do so.

The working student should be under the eye of the counselor, since the motivation of some will far outstrip their capacity. Some students may need counseling to help them to accept a more accurate perspective re-

<sup>23</sup> Kandel, I. L., "Scholarships or Part-time Jobs?" *School and Society*, 7:107, Aug. 13, 1949.

garding their assets and liabilities. While some students can carry both a work load and an academic load, for others it may be too much of a burden.

Many students feel the pressure of time, and to some the idea of not being able to complete their degree work in the regular four years is unthinkable. A counselor may help some students to a realization that, in the long run, it may be better to take six or seven years to attain a degree and maintain one's health, rather than to try to do it in four years and ruin one's health.

Student leaders should participate in the planning and administration of any work plans. Without their assistance it will be difficult to evolve work plans that will be realistic and will be of the greatest benefit to the greatest number of needy students.

Whatever the merits or demerits of part-time employment may be, there should be some attempt to relate the employment to the total educational program of the student. This relationship has been achieved to a high degree in those colleges which operate under what is known as the co-operative education plan. The student divides his time between theoretical training and practical work experience. Appointments are usually made jointly by the college and the business firm. For the most part no agreement is made by the appointee to enter the employment of the company after graduation. A great variety of stipulations govern the selection of these candidates for financial assistance by industry. In some schools, such as Berry College, students may earn half the cost of maintaining themselves for one academic year by working four months of the year. The other half may be made up by scholarships and donations from friends at the college. Berry's aim is to offer suitable educational opportunities by means of manual labor to those who otherwise would have no chance. A liberal education at Berry includes the training of the head, the heart, and the hand.

Many colleges have cooperative houses on their campus. In these houses a small group of students share the total work load, so that their monthly bill is often less than it would be if they were not attending college.

5. *Student aid from Federal sources.* While many Americans have maintained a fairly consistent "hands-off" attitude with regard to Federal aid to education, the fact remains that the Federal government has played an increasingly important role in the education of Americans as each decade has progressed. In no decade has the financing of the education of so many Americans been influenced by the Federal government as it has in the past ten years. Since its inception in 1944, billions of dollars have been spent on the Serviceman's Readjustment Act, or, as it is better known, the GI Bill of Rights, and the majority of these funds have been for the higher education of the veterans of the Second World War.

When America became a nation, education was considered the respon-



sibility of the home, with the church playing an important auxiliary role. A higher education was for the select few, and the government neither interfered with, nor aided, that education. As the educational level of the people gradually increased, and as the minimum years of respectable education became larger and larger, it became increasingly obvious that, if the majority of the people were to have the education considered desirable, the state and the Federal governments would have to provide a good share of the money for that education.

Since 1930 the Federal government has participated on a vast scale in various kinds of educational programs. During the depression years of the 1930's there were three such programs, the Works Progress Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the National Youth Administration. These have since ceased to function, but they were replaced toward the end of the Second World War by a social experiment that was probably unique in the history of education in any land. The purpose of the Serviceman's Readjustment Act was to provide education or training for veterans of the Second World War. This education or training, was to start within four years of July 25, 1947, or the date of discharge, and to end in nine years. By the end of 1951 this program had involved 7,779,000 veterans in education and training at a staggering cost of \$12,900,000,000. Of this amount \$3,400,000,000 was for tuition costs alone. The highest enrollment in institutions of higher learning occurred on December 31, 1947, when 1,158,000 veterans were enrolled. By the end of 1951 the enrollment had dropped to 402,000.

Even when the GI Bill was at its peak, however, and when it was still assumed that the Second World War was the war to end all wars, it was quite obvious that the end of the GI Bill would not see the end of Federal government financing of higher education. The President's Commission on Higher Education<sup>24</sup> not only recommended a steady increase in the number of students experiencing a college education, but also suggested a national program of Federal scholarships to finance this increased higher education. It was suggested that grants-in-aid should be provided for at least 20 per cent of all nonveteran students, and that the primary basis for determining the awards should be financial need, coupled with the requisite qualifications of total personal abilities and interests.

In June, 1952, the U.S. Office of Education prepared and transmitted to Congress a student-aid bill proposing scholarship aid to the "neediest of the ablest" among high-school students. Any high-school graduate could apply for a scholarship. Stipends would be granted to the neediest of the most promising scholars. The amount would be determined by scholarship commissions, and it would not exceed \$800 an academic year. The stipend would be renewable each year until the student had completed

<sup>24</sup> *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals*, p. 52.



the work for the first post-high-school degree. The recipient could attend the college of his choice, and the stipend would be paid directly to him. The bill contemplated that when the program would be in full operation 50,000 to 60,000 students would be entering college each year with the aid of Federal stipends of various amounts.

Extreme as the provisions of this act would have seemed to a majority of the citizens of the nation a few decades ago, they were limited compared with the recommendations of the United States Commissioner of Education, Earl McGrath.<sup>25</sup> He called for an appropriation of \$300 million annually for scholarships to be allotted among the states on the basis of a formula combining the number of persons of college age and the number of high-school graduates within each state. Scholarships would be awarded to high-school graduates within each state on the basis of academic promise and ability, with each winner free to attend any college of his choice on approval by any state commission. Four years would be the maximum life of a scholarship with an annual stipend of \$600 for undergraduates and \$1,000 for graduate students, scaled upward for dependents. The proposal would provide scholarships for about 400,000 undergraduates and about 37,500 graduate and professional students.

There is every indication at the present time that, whether it be through the draft or Universal Military Training, the male youth of the United States will serve for several years in the armed forces. As long as an all-out war does not develop, it seems very likely that by 1954 the number of young men being drafted into the service will be equaled by the number of young men being released from active duty with the service and held in the reserve units. These men will benefit under a new GI Bill, the Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act, passed by Congress in June, 1952. The new bill is very much the same as Public Law 346, although the total payments will be somewhat smaller. The biggest change is in the recipient of the payments. Under the old bill a large part of the grant went directly to the institution of higher learning to pay the fees, but the new bill gives the money directly to the veteran. The maximum time of education is thirty-six months, compared with forty-eight under the old bill, and schooling must start within two years of discharge instead of four years. Whatever the differences may be, it would seem that Federal aid for the higher education of veterans has become an accepted fact. This new GI Bill will not provide the answer for the capable young female students who are in need of aid, but, since the women's units in the armed forces are always open to volunteers, the young ladies will be able to receive the benefits of such a program if they wish.

Regardless of what happens on the international scene, the Federal government is now committed to aid for higher education. There would seem

<sup>25</sup> McGrath, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

to be no reason to believe that there will be any long-range change, short of all-out war and social disintegration, in this trend toward the steadily increasing role of the Federal government in the financing of higher education for the youth of America. One cannot help but wonder if it is possible to have such increasing financial support without an increasing ratio of Federal interference. When the very existence of a college or university may depend on the benevolence of the Federal government, there is very real danger that the institution may develop into little more than the voice of the government, and cease entirely to be an institution dedicated to the search for truth. The increasing power of government and the decreasing power of the individual cannot, in a democratic society, be regarded, even optimistically, as being any better than a mixed blessing.

6. *Other means of financial aid.* Financial aid is sometimes given by the remission of fees, rather than by the giving of cash. Automatic discounts are sometimes given to certain groups, such as those students in denominational colleges who are going into the ministry. Children of clergymen who belong to the religious denomination that operates a college may be admitted at a discount, and the children of faculty members in most colleges are also admitted at a discount. A few institutions operate on a pay-as-you-go plan whereby the student pays when he can what he can. He is permitted to continue with his work on the understanding that he will pay off his account as quickly as possible.

A grant-in-aid is a form of financial assistance that is sometimes considered to be part scholarship and part loan. There is no legal compulsion for the student to repay the grant, but it is considered as a "debt of honor," and, while it is hoped that the student will repay, many do not. A copy of a form used at Boston University for grants-in-aid for upperclassmen who have not qualified for other scholarship assistance is shown in Appendix 34.

There is little doubt that the financing of higher education is a major problem for thousands of young Americans. Once an institution admits a student, it accepts the responsibility to help the student, in every way that it can, to continue and profit from his higher education. There must be an intelligent attempt to secure means of aiding students financially, of using what funds are available in the most profitable manner, of helping the students to understand what financial help is available, and of counseling the disturbed student so that he can make intelligent decisions on problems concerned with the financing of his education. If these tasks are to be carried out effectively there would appear to be a need for:

1. A student-aid committee made up of representatives from the administration, the faculty, and the student body. This committee should be the planning body on the whole question of student aid, and their final

recommendations should become institutional policy. One of the key figures on the committee would be the director of student aid.

2. A personnel- rather than a money-minded director of student aid. Such a person would be financially realistic, but he would not be the "businessman" sort of person. He would be a humane individual who would realize that the reason for his position was service to the students rather than to the institution. He would be an "expert" in the area of student aid and would be able to bring to the committee facts and figures that would aid them in their deliberations.

3. A counselor who would be able to provide pertinent and up-to-date information regarding student aid. He would work with students individually and in groups, and he would attempt to see that all students were aware of all the avenues of help that were available.

4. A counselor who would help students to gain insight so that they could make more realistic choices in the matter of the financial aid that might be available, or adjust to an environmental situation in which there was no hope of any financial assistance.

5. A central office where all personnel workers concerned with student aid could be housed.

One final requisite would be that the whole program of student aid be integrated with, and considered as a part of, the total program of student-personnel services. With such a program the student would receive the maximum assistance possible, and the funds available would be used in the wisest possible manner.

## CHAPTER 12 *Student Group Activities*

It is difficult to arrive at a title for a chapter such as this. The traditional heading would have been "Extracurricular Activities," but this is hardly appropriate when there is general agreement that these activities are not extra, and that a steadily increasing number of them are becoming curricular activities. "Co-curricular" is a better term, but it is not completely appropriate, since many of the activities are curricular, while many others have little relationship to the curricular offering. The term that has been used here might be described as the best of a poor choice, but it does emphasize a basic difference between such activities and the curricular offering. The academic curricular offering is not decided by the students, although they may affect and modify it, and all faculty members may say that the curriculum is offered for the students. The fact remains, however, that the academic offering is decided by the faculty and offered by the faculty. The usual academic course could not be described as a student activity. The good teacher may see that a course is a learning experience for the students, but it cannot be considered as an actual student activity unless it is planned and put into operation by the students. Obviously, not all of the activities that are generally known as student activities can satisfy this criterion, but let us consider student activities as those campus activities which are not a part of the academic curriculum, occur outside of the classroom, and are generally planned and put into operation by the students with the help and advice of the faculty if it is considered necessary.

The whole question of the place of student activities in the modern American institution of higher learning cannot be considered intelligently without considering the general purpose and the objectives of our colleges and universities. There are still many educators who feel that the primary purpose of a college or university is intellectual endeavor, and that all else is secondary. One of the stoutest upholders of this point of view is Robert Maynard Hutchins, the recent Chancellor of the University of Chicago, although it is interesting to note that the College of the University of Chicago has one of the best programs of student activi-



ties of any institution in the country. The President of Clark University expressed the same point of view in his greeting to students in the University Student Handbook: <sup>1</sup>

Above all else we stand for scholarship. This is not a college dedicated to good times with a few studies thrown in for window dressing. Here the life of the mind takes precedence over everything else. Yet, we also encourage a number of extra-classroom activities of a constructive nature—a sane program of sports, dramatics, debating, publications, departmental clubs and social affairs.

Johnson has stated: <sup>2</sup>

It seems that activities which have begun spontaneously as outlets for youthful energy in a day when the campus and the surrounding community offered too little variety have now jelled into conventional forms. Some of them carry on by their own momentum, and not because they are still wanted by anybody; and each of them is a thief of hours which belong to a year's classroom already crowded into twenty-two weeks at most.

Cowley and Waller,<sup>3</sup> some years ago, spoke of the coercion and selective mechanisms of the activity groups, particularly fraternities, athletic teams, and publications. They believed that the athlete had priority in campus elections; that managers, chairmen, and editors were controlled by small cliques; that elections to senior societies and other honors were determined by the position the student held, which in turn was based on selective norms. They felt that corruption in politics reached into the campus, and that alumni and national fraternity organizations used big-business methods in rushing.

On the other hand, even those colleges whose presidents stress the intellectual virtues of the institution very rarely have a publication that does not place an overemphasis on the social education that the students may experience. Every college catalogue has something to say about its program of student activities, and the wording is such that the institution at least appears to feel that they are of some importance. Alumni bulletins place much stress on student activities. Indeed, some alumni bulletins resemble football publications more than anything else. Even the small liberal-arts colleges recognize the importance of the out-of-class student activities.

The President of Mount Holyoke College, which might be regarded as a traditional liberal-arts college, is quoted in the *Mount Holyoke Quarterly* as saying: <sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *Student Handbook of Clark University*, 1949–1950, Vol. 40, p. 3.

<sup>2</sup> Johnson, Burgess, *Campus versus Classroom*, New York: Ives Washburn, Inc., 1946, p. 49.

<sup>3</sup> Cowley, W. H., and Willard Waller, "A Study of Student Life," *Journal of Higher Education*, 6:132–142, March, 1935.

<sup>4</sup> *Mount Holyoke Quarterly*, 34(1), 2, 1950.

. . . there is always a challenge to the liberal arts plan to educate each individual for her life to come. Mount Holyoke, through its curriculum and laboratory experiences, on campus and in the countryside, makes every effort to develop the contemplative qualities of her students and to give to each some sense of values.

In the past decade the value and necessity of a strong program of student activities has been emphasized by many writers. The opinions of the few quoted below are fairly representative.

Hand: <sup>5</sup>

. . . we view campus activities as constituting a fundamentally important part of the total college curriculum . . . we hold that student activities should be accorded the intelligent planning, the staff time, and the financial support which their critical importance so clearly merits.

Scott: <sup>6</sup>

To many college students, however, the extra-curriculum activities—in the sense of formally organized group activities, plus social activities—constitute the real life of the campus. It is perhaps at least unfortunate that to so many of the presumed beneficiaries of college the “real life” is “extra.”

Townsend: <sup>7</sup>

It is the experience of most college graduates that life in the college outside the classroom is reviewed in after years as one of the major “goods” of college experience . . . the extra-curricular life of a teachers college should systematically foster a participation with others in self-directed activities for the very legitimate reason that only by so doing may the teachers college insure to the student a realization of a normally developed pattern of interests of enduring design. . . .

Lloyd-Jones and Smith: <sup>8</sup>

Extra-curricular activities offer the opportunity for students to develop good qualities of leadership and followership. They offer the opportunity to serve the institution; to experience and to help create good fellowship and social good will; they further self-realization, and all-round growth. They assist students in adjusting to their student world and in learning the qualities of good citizenship.

<sup>5</sup> Hand, Harold C. (ed.), *Campus Activities*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, p. 344.

<sup>6</sup> Scott, William E., “Extra-curriculum Activities,” in John Dale Russell (ed.), *Student Personnel Services in Colleges and Universities*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941, p. 209.

<sup>7</sup> Townsend, Marion E., *The Administration of Personnel Services in Teacher Training Institutions of the United States*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, p. 11.

<sup>8</sup> Lloyd-Jones, Esther M., and Margaret Ruth Smith, *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, p. 186.

Strang:<sup>9</sup>

Informal student activities are an intrinsic part of college education and the "better half" of personnel work. They constitute the social curriculum; they are a laboratory for the development of personality. There is a tendency for the recognized curriculum and the "extra-curriculum" to become welded together into a total pattern of experience, which adds up to a college education.

The major purpose of an education would appear to be to help to develop the good citizen. If educators are concerned with the whole social structure of their country they can hardly say that they have an effective educational system if it produces individuals who are concerned only with the self, individuals whose sole criterion of good living is success, individuals who are dogmatic, intolerant of others and of themselves, individuals who are fearful and insecure. It is true, of course, that a college education, particularly in a professional school, may be concerned with skills and techniques and understandings that are essential for the practice of a profession. Nevertheless, as far as mankind is concerned, the morality, the security, the goodness, the unselfishness, of even professional men and women are more important than their technical skill and understanding. What does it matter if we know how to harness atomic energy but use it for the destruction of mankind? What does it matter if we understand human behavior but use this understanding to make others our servants? What does it matter if we can create wonderful things but are still a timid and fearful people? Indeed, of what value is any knowledge if it is to be used only to degrade man instead of to ennoble him?

If the out-of-class activities are regarded as a part of the student's education, then some record should be kept of the activities. The guidance office at Boston University School of Education has used a form including student activities as a part of its student record. A practical difficulty in the use of such a form is that the student must periodically check it to keep it up-to-date. This can be done either by having the same form available for each registration period, or by having the student make out a new form during each registration period.

If the development of the good citizen is to be a major objective of higher education, then a cardinal principle throughout the whole pattern of education would be that of self-determination. Every educative experience should be a student activity, but the classroom experiences will, of necessity, still be faculty determined. The students cannot decide the knowledge and skills that are required in a professional course for personnel workers such as Occupational Information. The students in each individual class cannot make the decisions as to the content of the course.

<sup>9</sup> Strang, Ruth, in C. Gilbert Wrenn, *Student Personnel Work in Colleges*, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951, p. 239.

They can, however, determine the means by which they will achieve this knowledge and the skills and techniques that are required, and in the classroom of the good teacher there will be much in the way of student activity. If the teacher is concerned with learning, there is student domination and student activity, but the basic content of the course is not determined by the student, although the experiences that result may be of his making. The out-of-class activities, however, should be activities that are truly student activities, in that they are determined and planned by the students. Both types of activities are necessary if an education is to be complete, but student activities should be as their name describes them. A question that should be of concern to all personnel workers is the extent to which the various co-curricular or extracurricular activities are actually *student* activities, and the degree to which they help to achieve the purposes of a college education.

Another criterion that might be used to measure the extent to which out-of-class, noncurricular activities are worthy to be a part of the total educational experience of the student is the extent to which these activities measure up as *group* activities. The very nature of the classroom subject is such that it is rarely, even with the best of teachers, that the class functions as a group. It may consist of a number of individuals, or even of a number of groups, but there is little in the way of group identity in the average academic class. A real student activity should supply this need for group identification.

## TYPES OF STUDENT ACTIVITIES

The activities to be discussed in this section obviously represent only a few of the hundreds found on college campuses throughout the country. They are, nevertheless, the dominant activities on most campuses and they are the ones in which the greatest student participation is to be found. There is some disagreement among college personnel workers as to whether all of these activities meet the criteria that have been suggested for positive college educational experiences.

1. *Athletics*. The activities that are the best known, and certainly the best publicized, are those concerned with athletic endeavors. Many of America's colleges are unknown as far as research and teaching are concerned, but they dominate on at least the sports pages of the nation's press during the football season. In more recent years some have also become well known in the various scandals concerning the bribing of players, and the public has become increasingly cynical about the amateur status of college sport.

It is probably correct to say that many athletic officials who attempt to woo promising young high-school athletes to their various colleges are



much more concerned with what the individual student can do for their respective colleges than they are with what the college will be able to do to help the student to become a mature and good citizen. The athletic coach may also be interested in his own welfare, since the duration of the coach's job usually depends on whether or not he can produce a winning team. The emphasis is not on the sport and what it can do to help each individual student, but rather on winning, sometimes at almost any cost.

There is no doubt whatever that in many colleges athletes are a favored group and are set apart from the other students. They are admitted on a different basis, and they are sometimes graded on a different basis. More than one instructor can speak of the pressures that have been applied in the matter of grades for star athletes.

On the other hand, is there any reason why a young man who plans to be a high-school football coach should be expected to have the capacity for abstract reasoning of one who is going to be a research chemist? If the football coach needs less in the way of intellectual capacity for his future occupation, is it wrong to have a different admission standard for him than for the future chemist? Moreover, if the skills that he will need can be learned by taking courses in Campcraft and Football Strategy, is it not reasonable that the student should take such courses rather than attempting to develop skill in the analysis of organic compounds? Surely this does not sound too unreasonable, but a large proportion of the students and faculty in many colleges quite frequently ridicule the courses that are offered for athletes. They will smile knowingly when some administrator states for the press that all students in his institution are admitted on the same basis and treated in the same way.

The athletes themselves often show the results. They are expected to perform on the athletic field for the glory of their school, but sometimes they feel the aloofness of some of their classmates and their instructors. They may feel that they are rejected by the rest of the college, and they often retaliate by forming their own defensive unit. In many college classrooms throughout the country the athletes can be spotted in a tight group, usually at the back of the room. This feeling of rejection is probably accentuated for some athletes whose particular sport requires a great deal of brawn. They know that they stand out in the group, and they don't always feel too happy about it.

Another difficulty, from the personnel point of view, is that many of the young athletes who come in as freshmen have very understandably developed a false sense of values. A young adolescent who has been pursued by numerous colleges is almost certain to place himself a little higher in the scale of values than he probably will be by his contemporaries. This may accentuate his feeling of rejection when he discovers that many of his classmates are not the least bit concerned about his athletic prowess. He

will also sometimes feel the very real rejection from the more academic-minded faculty members, who believe that every college student should be a scholar, and that one cannot possibly be both a scholar and an athlete. This feeling is sometimes personalized by the fact that the professor may be keenly aware that, despite his various academic degrees and numerous publications, he is earning a good deal less than the football coach. He may, with some justification, feel that some of the money spent on athletic activities might be put to better use by adding it to the salaries of other faculty members.

There is a job to be done here with both students and faculty. Every attempt should be made to have athletes become a part of the total student body, rather than be individuals who stand out in a favorable or unfavorable light. An admissions committee, representing students and faculty, should be sure that, whatever the admissions policy with regard to athletes may be, it is known and acceptable to all students and faculty members. The chief personnel officer should work with the academic dean to see that curriculum experienced by athletes is reasonable and functional, but not a series of "snap" courses. Counselors should be available to help some students whose perspective regarding athletics is highly distorted. Courses in personal adjustment should be offered, where trained group leaders can help athletes and nonathletes to come to understand and appreciate each other's capacities. In small groups the issues and problems that may arise because of the administration's athletic policy may be aired honestly and frankly, and personal relations between athletes and nonathletes may be improved.

The pressure to win in intramural sports is much less than in intercollegiate athletic activities, and there is thus some likelihood that intramural sports will tend to be more of a student activity. Certainly, there is little indication of *student* activity in the highly competitive intercollegiate sports in American colleges today. This is particularly so in some of the "big-name" sports, such as football, where the student lives under much the same control as if he were in the armed services. Such a group can hardly be called an interest group, since only those with the top skill and capacity will be chosen. On most campuses there are many boys who would be interested in playing football because they like it, but they are not allowed to participate because they lack the skill that is required to make the few positions that are available. On this one criterion, then, it would appear sound to say that intercollegiate competitive sports are not student activities. They are dominated by the institution, and only those students with the top skills can participate. Those students participate not for their own benefit and growth, but for the supposed benefit of the institution.

On the other hand, it is true that in many colleges the emphasis is on

intramural athletics and participation by all who are interested enough to play, whether they are rank beginners or experts. In such a situation, with the lack of competitive pressures on the coaches, there will be a good deal more in the way of student activity, although even in such cases they are not completely student activities. Institutions such as the University of Chicago, Reed College, Antioch College, and Johns Hopkins University have taken steps to de-emphasize the competitive intercollegiate sports. These institutions appear to be well satisfied with the results, and there has been no decline in student enrollment. There is no evidence to indicate that winning athletic teams increase student enrollment, or that losing teams cause it to decrease. A surprisingly small proportion of the total student body come to an institution because of the publicity it receives on the sports pages of the press.

The athletic group can and frequently does help the student to feel that he belongs. This may be positive, but it may also be negative if this is an in-group sort of feeling defensive in nature and exclusive of others who do not conform to a particular pattern. When the program of athletics is for all students there will be a good deal of student domination. Students will decide what is and what is not important. There is a real chance, under such circumstances, that the athletic group may become a positive factor in general learning and in social education. If, on the other hand, the athlete is considered as a unique individual apart from the other students, the chances are that the group in which he functions will not be an entirely healthy one.

In a study of male sports in seventy-five institutions, Killefer and Hand<sup>10</sup> found that four-fifths of the colleges had special governing boards in charge of intercollegiate athletics. Of the total membership of these boards 29 per cent were students, 62 per cent were faculty, and 9 per cent were alumni. The lack of student control in intercollegiate sports indicated by this study is fairly representative of conditions in colleges and universities throughout the country.

Athletics can be student activities, but in most colleges, particularly those where there is stress on winning intercollegiate competitions, athletics have been taken completely out of the hands of the students. Their basic purpose is to benefit the institution rather than the individual student. Frequently the group interaction is negative, and participation depends more on previously acquired skill than on student interest.

2. *Fraternities and sororities.* Fraternities and sororities have been described as a continuation of adolescent fervor. If this is so, there are no indications of any great decrease in this fervor on college campuses throughout the country, although there have been many changes in different sororities and fraternities, particularly since the Second World War.

<sup>10</sup> Killefer, Tom, and Harold C. Hand in Hand (ed.), *op. cit.*, p. 294.



There have been numerous arguments for and against fraternities for many years. Those of McKown<sup>11</sup> with regard to high-school secret societies are typical. On the negative side, he states that they develop clannishness and snobbishness, they are undemocratic, set unworthy standards, carry petty politics into the school, are detrimental to school spirit, dissipate the energies and ambitions of the members, have a bad effect on scholarship, do not encourage a proper use of leisure, lower ethical standards, cause disciplinary troubles, narrow the sympathies and interests of students, foster habits of extravagance, and stir up strife and contention. On the positive side, they foster friendships and inspire loyalty, they encourage school activities, they teach proper social usage and customs, and they provide the student with a harmless outlet for the instinct or natural urge of gregariousness.

There are many elements about fraternities that would make them questionable as positive group experiences. They are "in-groups" with very definite qualifications, many of which are discriminatory. Even the professional educational fraternity, Phi Delta Kappa, had a clause restricting membership to white men only until 1942. Social and economic status is another obvious factor that affects the possibility of election to a fraternity or sorority. The very fact that these organizations have restrictive qualifications may often mean that members tend to build a higher wall around themselves and come to have even less understanding and acceptance of others. Cowley and Waller<sup>12</sup> state that the old-line fraternities, in general, almost universally discriminate against Jews, that many of them also discriminate against Catholics, and that their selection is influenced by such factors as preparatory-school background and financial status of the family. Angell<sup>13</sup> found that the worse academic adjustment became, the greater the increase of the fraternity population. He felt that sororities promoted social facility, the ability to understand others, self-knowledge, and self-control, but that they were not likely to increase tolerance or to stimulate one to think through one's philosophy of life.

Even more vicious, however, is the effect on those students who cannot be admitted to the select group. While it is certainly true that fraternities may help many students to adjust in a more effective way, and to become better and happier citizens, it is doubtful that there is anything positive that happens to the large number of students who are not admitted to fraternities and sororities. Few things are more tragic than the sight of nonfraternity students banding together, indicating that they have absolutely no concern with fraternities, and then proceeding to form some

<sup>11</sup> McKown, Harry C., *Extracurricular Activities*, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1952, pp. 243-271.

<sup>12</sup> Cowley and Waller, *op. cit.*, p. 137.

<sup>13</sup> Angell, Robert C., *A Study in Undergraduate Adjustment*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930, pp. 112-118.



sort of club for nonfraternity students. Practically all the members of such a club would eagerly accept any chance to join a fraternity, and the formation of another club is an unhappy form of compensation.

It may be possible that a fraternity can be made into a positive working group, and on some campuses fraternities come much closer to being healthy, working, group units than they do on other campuses. They can become more of a student activity, concerned with the welfare of the individual student rather than the glorification of the fraternity. Nevertheless, it is difficult to see how a fraternity, with its national organization and control and its restrictive admissions policies, can be classified as a student activity, even under the best of circumstances.

Amherst College is a good example of an institution where the fraternity question became a problem that had to be faced. The board of trustees reached the conclusion:<sup>14</sup>

. . . that the fraternities have failed markedly in recent years to make a positive contribution to college life, that the interests of the college can best be served at this time by a program of radical reform, rather than by one of abolition, with its inevitable untried substitutes.

Only if a program of reform shall have been tried and shall fail should the irrevocable step of abolition be taken.

Measures suggested were that the number of chapters be increased so that all students could belong to a chapter, rushing should be under college control with a fair distribution among chapters, there should be a corps of faculty advisers, standards of conduct should be enforced by the chapter and the college, and there should be no race or creed restrictions.

If fraternities and sororities on any campus appear to be a negative rather than a positive factor, a twofold attack on the problem may be made. On the one hand, nonfraternity activities, including living accommodation, can be made so attractive that the fraternity loses much of its prestige, and an increasing number of students who would be chosen by a fraternity will prefer to live in a dormitory, and participate in other college activities. This is the case at the State College of Washington, where 35 per cent of the students reside in fraternity and sorority houses, compared with 41 per cent in supervised residence halls, 2 per cent in cooperative housing, and 10 per cent in other college-owned housing.

The chief personnel officer should work with fraternity officers to see that the goals of other student group activities on the campus become the goals of the fraternities. Even though a fraternity may remain selective, and may not be under student control, there is no reason why it should not be able to function for the benefit of those who do belong to it, or why it should not be a student-centered group activity. If fraternities are

<sup>14</sup> Johnson, *op. cit.*, pp. 69-70.

to be considered as part of the total program of education, they should be expected to contribute in a positive way to that program. It is to be hoped that groups, as well as individuals, may come to believe that it is highly desirable that people have differences, but that it is highly undesirable that, because of these differences, some individuals must occupy a superior status, while others must adjust to an inferior role.

3. *Clubs.* Clubs come much closer to being student activities since they are usually based on student interest, and there is little in the way of prohibitive requirements for belonging to the group. On nearly every campus there is such a variety of clubs that every student has some interest area to which he can belong if he so desires. Students are usually encouraged to develop new clubs if they feel that there is a need. It is unfortunate that in some institutions students who would have the most to give are unable to participate in club activities because of academic restrictions.

Religious clubs such as the Hillel Club, the Newman Club, and the Christian Association are usually limited to students of a particular denomination, and in this way are restrictive. They are quite frequently under the control of the various denominations that they represent, and, as is the case with some other group organizations on the campus, the welfare of the student is sometimes secondary. The prime purpose of religious clubs would often appear to be the preservation of the faith. Such clubs could do a great deal to improve tolerance and understanding and brotherhood on the campus, but too frequently they are even more of an in-group than a fraternity, and they build high religious walls around the student. As long as campus religious clubs are concerned only with the welfare of their own faith and ignore the majority of the students on the campus, they can hardly be described as student activities. The effect of religious clubs on the students on some campuses may be seriously questioned as long as they limit themselves to their own religion. They might well be more effective if they would have as a faculty adviser someone of a different religion, if they would coordinate their work with other religious groups, and if they would spend a good deal of their time in getting to understand the religions of others rather than limiting their work to a further study of their own belief. If intensive study of one's own religion is necessary, it should be the work of the church rather than a college religious club.

Departmental clubs may satisfy a real student need for further understanding in certain subject areas, but too frequently they become faculty dominated and are little more than an extra classroom session. On some campuses students feel that joining certain departmental clubs is practically a requirement for getting a respectable grade. As with other clubs,

they should not be formed unless the students feel that there is a need for them.

Dramatic clubs can be a real group experience, open to any student who is interested. An understanding faculty adviser will realize that for many students participation in dramatics may be an important form of therapy. As in all other clubs, the emphasis should be on the student and what he gets out of the experience rather than on the production of a finished play that would be acceptable on Broadway.

Publications are not generally considered as clubs, but they are one of the major activities in which students participate. On some campuses publications are almost completely a student activity, with faculty advisers acting strictly as advisers, while in other colleges the students do all the work, but the publication is little more than the expression of administrative policy. Publications can provide excellent experiences, but they are usually limited to a relatively few students. This is an activity where there is a particular need for the development of a high sense of responsibility among the student body, and for democratic coordination between the faculty representative and the student workers. If responsibility and understanding are not evident among both students and faculty representatives, there will almost certainly be either a continual and bitter struggle for control or complete faculty domination. A fairly recent example of such a student-faculty clash was the dismissal by the Dean of Students of the student editor of the University of Chicago's *Maroon* because of his extreme left-wing position.

Debating societies are limited to only a few students, and they no longer occupy the position of importance that they once held on the campus. They can hardly be classified as a student group activity although they are obviously beneficial for a few students.

Political clubs often cause the most concern for personnel officers, since they are the clubs where there are most likely to be expressions of opinions contrary to the beliefs of the majority of the population. If political clubs are student clubs, there is almost certain to be some expression of opinion considered to be dangerous by the more conservative element of the population. This may cause some personnel officers to wish that the only two political clubs in existence were the moderately respectable Republican club and Democratic club. Instead they find progressive clubs, Marxist clubs, socialist clubs, communist clubs, and so on. Too frequently political clubs function somewhat as some religious clubs, with the control of the club in an outside organization, and the purpose of the club being the improvement of the campus status of the political party or belief that it represents. This again is a definite in-group, with the exclusion of all who do not faithfully comply with the party edicts. This may



be one reason for the failure of most political clubs to attract many students.

Clubs can be real student activities offering the students real group experiences. This will only be so, however, if the administration views clubs, as well as other out-of-class activities, as an essential part of the total education of the student. It must give them financial support so that the individuals who work in the area of student activities will be professionally trained personnel workers. They will understand the place of student activities, and they will be capable of working with students to make a campus activity a vital part of the student's total learning experience.

### STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND STUDENT GOVERNMENT

Probably all college administrators in the United States would say that their institutions aim to educate for democratic living, but there is an inconsistency in an institution that states this as an aim but does little to develop and to encourage student independence and maturity to the point where student government can come at least close to being a reality. The basic aim of American education is to help the student to become a mature and stable individual so that he can be responsible for his own actions and will need nothing in the way of outside control. Training for independence and responsibility is surely lacking in any institution that has little or nothing in the way of a developing program that encourages student leadership and student participation in many of the affairs of the institution.

Some administrators may discourage student government because they feel that it is impossible to have government without assuming responsibility, and students cannot assume responsibility simply because society puts the responsibility for their actions on the shoulders of the administration of the institution. This misconception arises from the belief that "government" must be an "all or nothing at all" affair. The mature individual is one who puts the welfare of others above his own welfare, and the true leader is not one who governs by imposing his own will on others. Those students who believe that student government implies that students will be able to enforce their desires regardless of the wishes of the faculty are as unrealistic as those faculty members who believe that discipline consists of enforcing faculty desires on an unwilling student body. The two usually go together, and an institution must bear at least some of the blame for an irresponsible student body.

A group of students *can* be responsible for its actions, just as an individual *can* be responsible for his actions. This must surely be the belief of anyone who works in the field of education and learning, for if we do not believe that ultimately all men can become responsible individuals concerned with the welfare of others, we must surely have a defeatist atti-



tude that should not be found among personnel workers. This achievement of the capacity for self-government is, with individuals, with groups, and with nations, a slow and laborious process. It does not come easily. A student body must learn responsibility. If they take over control abruptly, the only difference will be the substitution of one group of masters for another, and a new set of masters often turns out to be even more rigid than the people they have ousted.

Johnson takes the pessimistic point of view on the question of student government when he says: <sup>15</sup>

Complete self-government does not and cannot exist in any American undergraduate college. . . . The degree of self direction must be limited by the immaturity of most of the students, the obstinacy of a traditional administrative attitude, and by the fact that faculty and students alike have come together to accomplish a certain purpose despite minor social considerations.

Here again the major question probably has to do with what is meant by complete self-government. If self-government is based on the assumption that all students have the ability to assume true responsibility, then it may be that complete student self-government is impossible. All personnel workers, however, must surely work for a student and faculty body whose maturity will be such that each will be able to understand and respect the desires and wishes of the other. The progress that is being made toward the achievement of the goal of student self-government is much more important than the actual extent of student self-government. A mature concept of government views it as a community affair in which all interested parties participate. Thus *student* government in a college or university is no more desirable than *faculty* government. Students and faculty should assume their joint responsibility and aim for a community government that works toward the achievement of a common objective.

It is probably pointless to discuss ways and means of selecting and training students for democratic leadership in an institution that does not have a democratic faculty, and whose basic policy toward students would appear to be one of distrust. Students throughout the country complain bitterly about the farcical form of student government that is strictly a make-believe, with the students little more than a rubber stamp for the decisions made by a few administrators. Faculty members must indicate their belief in the capacity of the students for responsibility by their actions in their daily work with students. Such a faculty will probably accept the principles of student government as they have been enunciated by Dennis Trueblood: <sup>16</sup>

<sup>15</sup> Johnson, *op. cit.*, pp. 71-72.

<sup>16</sup> Trueblood, Dennis, "Participation of Student Government in the Student Personnel Program," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 11:800, Winter, 1951.

1. To the extent that students are able to, and do assume responsibility, to that same extent they will feel that the school is a cooperative enterprise in which the members of the faculty are not autocrats but guides.
2. Student government is based on a legal authority delegated to the student body by the administration and on an educational right of students.
3. The authority so delegated should be clearly defined.
4. The responsibility in the defined areas of authority should be complete.
5. The student government should relate effectively to the rest of the curriculum inasmuch as it is part of the learning process.
6. Student government should meet minimum standards of administrative efficiency.
7. Student government should include the best in democratic governing technique.
8. The responsibility to represent student opinion outside of the areas of delegated authority should be clearly understood.

Teachers or other personnel workers in colleges or universities who are interested in developing the capacities of students so that they may share the responsibility for the government of the institution with the faculty and administration might consider the following points worthy of some thought:

1. Faculty members should take the lead in practicing democracy in their daily work, indicating in every way their confidence in the capacities and trustworthiness of the students.
2. Both faculty and students should work toward an institutional government characterized by the cooperative effort of both faculty and students, working together toward a common objective. It should be assumed that the initial effort toward such a situation will come from the faculty.
3. Responsibility is a heavy burden that can only be accepted by mature individuals. Students must be given an opportunity to learn gradually so that they may become capable of accepting responsibility. If responsibility is thrust upon them too suddenly chaos will almost certainly be the result.
4. Faculty and students should clearly understand that, while they should work together toward a common goal, there will be certain areas where the prime responsibility will rest on the administration, whereas in other areas the students will share a major part of the responsibility. There cannot be responsibility if there is not authority, and in some areas the faculty and the administration have the authority vested in them and must therefore assume the burden of responsibility.
5. Faculty members and students should realize that a democratic way of life is, in many respects, a difficult way of life. It can be practiced only by mature and secure individuals. There will always be at least a portion of the student body, and probably a portion of the faculty, for whom

the acceptance of independence and responsibility will be quite impossible. This does not mean that other students and faculty members should not continue to help such people and to continue, themselves, on the road toward independence.

6. The capacity for self-government should be viewed by both students and faculty as an absolute necessity in a democratic society. The students should consider the acquisition of this capacity as one of the prime objectives of a college education. Social democracy will survive only if there are many citizens who are desirous of, as well as capable of, self-government. If at the college level there is little in the way of capacity for self-government, then the outlook for democracy is dark.

If we are to assume that student-personnel services are for the total welfare of the student, then it is obvious that there should be a close relationship between the student-personnel officer and the student leaders. The student leaders know the temper and the needs of the students better than do the faculty, and any continuing evaluation of student-personnel services must assume close contact between personnel officers and those students who represent and reflect student feeling on the campus.

There is probably no one area where there is a greater need for co-operation between students and faculty than in that of discipline. While the personnel officer should not be a disciplinarian in the sense of the administrator of punishment, he must very definitely be concerned with the causes of the action that incurs the need for discipline. The needs of the institution cannot be ignored, but traditionally the disciplinary officer has been one who has paid scant attention to the needs of the student. His basic concern has been to defend the institution and to see that its reputation was not tarnished. In a college, as in a school, a rigid form of disciplinary action that is completely punitive and has no concern with remedial action will frequently meet with public approval. A more humane and sensible form of discipline, where the major emphasis is on remedial action, will quite frequently be frowned upon by a large segment of the population. The modern personnel worker, concerned with the welfare of the student more than the resulting popularity of his action, will keep in mind at least three principles when considering the matter of campus discipline:

1. The *need* for disciplinary action is quite often a need that exists only in the minds of a few administrative officers. This will be particularly noticeable if the college administration has little contact with the student body and has no understanding of the mores of modern-day youth. Adults may smile when they read about some of the reasons for disciplinary action in colleges in the early days in this country, and yet in many colleges today there is administered a harsh form of discipline completely unreasonable from the point of view of modern-day youth. In the



appropriate responses on relatively slight provocation" (3, p. 249). This description parallels the hypothesis that anxiety-produced increases in drives should elevate the generalization gradients of frequency and amplitude, since elevation of frequency would produce inappropriate responses and elevated amplitude would produce exaggerated responses to stimuli that are normally ineffective in eliciting responses from less anxious people. Thus, the results obtained suggest that clinical anxiety, as measured in the present investigation, may be equated with other drives as a state-variable within the organism only under the specified conditions in which particular anxiety-producing cues are present in the situation.

An alternative interpretation of the fact that no difference was found between the two degrees of clinical anxiety under weak shock conditions is that the criteria employed for determining the levels of clinical anxiety were inadequate. This possibility hardly seems likely, however, in view of the difference obtained under the strong-shock condition. Furthermore, the fact that both the psychiatric ratings and the anxiety scale produced similar results indicates that this interpretation is insufficient. In fact, the similarity of the results obtained by the use of these two techniques for identifying clinical anxiety suggests that they tended to identify the same process and thus contributes to the construct validity of the anxiety scale as a measure of symptomatic anxiety reflecting an acquired drive.

It may be of additional interest to note that the present findings agree only in part with those of several recent studies. While Wenar (13) found that both clinical anxiety and stimulus intensity increased generalization to temporal stimuli, he obtained differences between his high- and low-anxiety groups under weak-shock and buzzer conditions, as well as under strong shock. Since either a shock or a buzzer was the signal to react on every trial, and since Ss were always notified of their reaction time in Wenar's procedure, it would appear that these conditions are sufficiently anxiety arousing to elicit differences between clinical anxiety levels that were not obtained under the less threatening conditions of the present experiment.

A more serious discrepancy with the present

findings and also with those of Wenar, however, is a suggestion by Eriksen (4) that his results indicate that high-anxious Ss exhibit *less* generalization than low-anxious Ss. This inference is based, in turn, on his findings that hysteric Ss showed more generalization than psychasthenic Ss, and that there was a significant negative correlation between his hysteria-minus-psychasthenia dimension and the manifest anxiety scale. Since Eriksen's suggestion is the direct opposite of the present findings, those of Wenar, and those reported by Hilgard, Jones, and Kaplan (7) that high-anxious Ss give more conditioned eyelid responses to a generalized stimulus, it seems likely that the discrepancy suggested by his results may have been an artifact of the range of anxiety scores included in his experimental sample. It would also appear reasonable to note that the greater generalization shown by his hysteric Ss may well have resulted from their repressive tendencies producing greater inattention and consequently more false responses. If such a relationship prevailed between general responsiveness and hysteria, the positive relationship between anxiety and generalization, demonstrated both for clinical ratings and the manifest anxiety scale in the present experiment, might well have been obscured and even reversed.

#### SUMMARY

The present study was concerned with the effects of anxiety upon stimulus generalization. It was hypothesized that the state inferred from manifest clinical symptoms of anxiety would show functionally similar motivational properties to the state of anxiety defined in terms of an implicit response that has been conditioned to situations involving noxious stimulation. It was predicted that both types of anxiety would exhibit the energizing properties of a drive and therefore elevate response gradients of generalization.

Seventy-two male psychiatric patients and an equal number of college students were divided into high-clinical-anxiety and low-clinical-anxiety subgroups by means of psychiatric ratings and a scale designed to measure anxiety in students. Variations in experimental anxiety were effected within each group by the use of two different intensities of shock and a buzzer. The Ss were trained to make a motor



reaction to a visual stimulus and then tested on other stimuli differing from the training stimulus in height. The amplitude and frequency of responses to these generalized stimuli were employed as the measures of generalization.

The results showed that the groups designated as high in clinical anxiety showed significantly more generalization than the low-clinical anxiety groups under the strong-shock condition. No difference was found between the two levels of clinical anxiety for either the weak-shock or buzzer condition.

Markedly parallel results were obtained by the use of psychiatric ratings for differentiating the degree of clinical anxiety in the psychiatric patients and by the use of a psychometric scale with the normal Ss.

It was concluded that the heightened responsiveness of anxious individuals to a wide range of stimuli may be subsumed under the more general effects of increased drive upon stimulus generalization, but that clinically defined anxiety is activated as a drive variable only when certain noxious cues are present.

#### REFERENCES

1. BROWN, J. S., & JACOBS, A. The role of fear in the motivation and acquisition of responses. *J. exp. Psychol.*, 1949, **39**, 747-759.
2. BUSS, A. H. Stimulus generalization as a function

- of clinical anxiety and direction of generalization. *J. abnorm. soc. Psychol.*, 1955, **50**, 271-273.
3. CAMERON, N. *The psychology of behavior disorders*. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1947.
4. ERIKSEN, C. W. Some personality correlates of stimulus generalization under stress. *J. abnorm. soc. Psychol.*, 1954, **49**, 561-565.
5. FARBER, I. E. Response fixation under anxiety and non-anxiety conditions. *J. exp. Psychol.*, 1948, **38**, 111-131.
6. FARBER, I. E., & SPENCE, K. W. Relation of stimulus intensity, practice, anxiety, and sex to simple RT and temporal generalization. Iowa City: State Univer. of Iowa, June 27, 1955. (Tech. Rep. No. 4, Contract N9 ONR-93802.)
7. HILGARD, E. R., JONES, L. V., & KAPLAN, S. J. Conditioned discrimination as related to anxiety. *J. exp. Psychol.*, 1951, **42**, 94-99.
8. MILLER, N. E. Studies of fear as an acquirable drive: I. Fear as motivation and fear reduction as reinforcement in the learning of new responses. *J. exp. Psychol.*, 1948, **38**, 89-101.
9. MOWRER, O. H. A stimulus-response analysis of anxiety and its role as a reinforcing agent. *Psychol. Rev.*, 1939, **46**, 553-565.
10. ROSENBAUM, G. Stimulus generalization as a function of level of experimentally induced anxiety. *J. exp. Psychol.*, 1953, **45**, 35-43.
11. TAYLOR, JANET. The relationship of anxiety to the conditioned eyelid response. *J. exp. Psychol.*, 1951, **41**, 81-92.
12. WELCH, L., & KUBIS, J. Conditioned PGR in states of pathological anxiety. *J. Psychol.*, 1947, **23**, 83-91.
13. WENAR, C. Reaction time as a function of manifest anxiety and stimulus intensity. *J. abnorm. soc. Psychol.*, 1954, **49**, 335-340.

Received November 18, 1955.

years after the Second World War many college students who were veterans of savage fighting were amused by the antics of some faculty members who attempted to discipline them as if they were children. A student once told the author of a faculty member in a state teachers' college who ordered him to stand out in the hall because he had apparently talked out of turn! After several such experiences, the veteran of the South Pacific decided to change his college!

Disciplinary action should be taken, then, only if there is a real need. If students and faculty cannot come to close agreement on just what deeds merit disciplinary action, then the students are either immature individuals who have no sense of responsibility and no understanding of the rights of others, or the faculty are individuals who live in a faraway world of unreality that makes it impossible for them to understand that they are teaching modern-day youth in a modern college. In such a situation students may be disciplined and controlled, but there will be little in the way of an education for democratic living.

When there is a close and harmonious working relationship between personnel officers and student leaders, there will be some likelihood that disciplinary action will be a relatively rare affair. When disciplinary action is taken, there will be agreement between both students and faculty that there is a real need for such action.

2. When disciplinary action is taken, the basic purposes will be considered to be remedial rather than punitive. This will be emphasized by action rather than by the traditional "this is for your own good" attitude, which is nearly always shared only by those who are doing the disciplining, never by those who are being disciplined. This obviously means that the whole question of campus discipline becomes the problem of professional personnel workers who are skilled students of human behavior rather than being taken over by campus policemen, who sometimes are too ineffective to hold any other type of position. If discipline is to be used, it will be a carefully thought-out part of a total job of remedial treatment, rather than an ill-considered punishment to protect the good name of the institution. In such a situation, personnel workers will remember that behavior is not an overnight affair, and while punishment may prevent the immediate display of the frowned-upon behavior, it is unlikely that it will have any other effect.

A police force may always be needed on a college campus, but surely the sort of education being experienced by a college community cannot be too effective if that community needs a larger police force, proportionately speaking, than does a similar-sized noncollege community. It is a function of all college personnel workers, including teachers, to do everything possible to help students to become responsible citizens who are capable of self-government without the aid of a police force. Even if

punitive action must sometimes be taken with some students, no personal worker can take such action without a feeling of failure. Such action may be necessary to protect the community, but in the history of mankind there is no evidence to indicate that the recipient of punishment becomes a better citizen because of that punishment. Prevention first, remedial action if necessary—and, when that has failed, punitive action, as a last resort.

3. The third principle is one that has often been repeated in this book. It is self-determination. The need for external discipline indicates that the goal of self-discipline, and therefore self-determination, has not been reached. Every college personnel worker must feel that it is his prime responsibility to help each individual student to reach that stage of maturity where no external pressures are needed.

Students should always be participants in any deliberations or decisions to be made on disciplinary problems. There is no doubt that modern institutions of higher learning are taking an increasingly enlightened attitude toward the whole question of discipline. Williamson and Foley<sup>17</sup> have emphasized a more modern attitude in their text on a counseling approach to the traditional disciplinary problems. Even here, however, the personnel workers who are quoted in their book too frequently sound like punitive and curative administrators rather than counselors. It is unfortunate, too, that some students have interpreted the title of this book to mean that the authors think of counseling and discipline as synonymous terms. It should be noted that in most of the cases in the appendix of the book the troubles of the students have gone beyond the preventive stage, and that the action taken is disciplinary, even though it may be thought of as remedial in nature. Placing a student on probation or having him detached from the institution may be necessary, but it is a punishment for having failed to live up to some requirement. It could be remedial; usually it is not.

During an in-service training program, a committee of residence-hall personnel workers at the State College of Washington drafted a series of principles that are worthy of note:<sup>18</sup>

1. Prevention is better than cure.
2. Handling of disciplinary cases should be an educative experience for all concerned.
3. The rights of both the individual and the living group are considered.
4. The establishment of traditions embodying good group and individual self-discipline should be encouraged.

<sup>17</sup> Williamson, E. G., and J. D. Foley, *Counseling and Discipline*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949.

<sup>18</sup> Unpublished report of a committee working under the direction of Norman Lange, Associate Dean of Students, State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash., July, 1951.

5. The immediate responsibility for discipline is that of the living group.
6. The definite discipline policies must be consistently followed.
7. An objective attitude must be maintained by the committee or council handling breaches of discipline.
8. Severe punishment should rarely be used, and then only as a last resort.
9. Punishment should be a direct outgrowth of the breach.

A modern approach to the whole question of student discipline on the campus emphasizes once again the key role that counseling assumes in all personnel services. Counseling is not disciplining, and counseling can hardly be effective if the purpose of the supposed counseling is to find out what crimes were committed by the student so that suitable punishment might be administered. Since discipline is practically always punitive, even though the punishment might result in positive growth, it may be more realistic to think of discipline as being what happens if the counseling process is ineffective. If students cannot be helped to become rational then they may commit acts that require disciplinary action. Every attempt should be made to see that the disciplinary act is as much a learning situation as possible, that the decision is made in consultation with the peer group of the student, and that the punishment should fit the offense. But even so it is still punishment, and the author is somewhat pessimistic as to the extent of the positive learning that occurs as a result of punishment.

### THE ADMINISTRATION OF STUDENT ACTIVITIES

All personnel workers would agree that students should take part in the administration of a program of student activities. Difficulties over the question of administration will almost certainly arise if students and faculty are jealous of each other's prerogatives, and each attempts to gain more power; if there is a lack of understanding of the role of both faculty and students in the administration of the activities; if either faculty or students are still at a point of immaturity such that they are incapable of responsible actions.

Student government is usually represented by a student council and the authority that the council has is delegated by the administration, usually through the chief personnel officer. As long as the emphasis is on community government, with students and faculty working together, this delegation of authority can be accepted as a not too unreasonable fact of life. If, however, the administration pointedly ignores any suggestions or recommendations from the student body, there will be an understandable resentment over delegated authority that apparently does not exist. Students can hardly be expected to be enthusiastic and energetic in work-



ing out proposals and recommendations when they know from previous experience that they will be ignored.

There is no particular administrative pattern that is superior for all institutions. It is generally more effective if the administration of student activities is in the hands of a committee consisting of both faculty and students. The faculty members should be individuals who understand the student point of view and are capable of working closely with the students. The student members may consist of students who have been elected from the entire student body or elected by the student council from their own members, who, in turn, have been elected by the entire student body.

One of the many problems that will be considered by the administrative committee will be that of financing student activities. The two major issues on this question are: first, where to get the money and, secondly, how to distribute it. In many institutions it is believed that a general activities fee will increase school spirit and result in a greater participation in activities, on the theory that if the students have to pay for an activity they will be more likely to join it. On the other hand, many students resent such an indiscriminate fee, which penalizes the many students who have more important things to do than participate in student activities. The married student who works forty hours a week will not be too sympathetic toward paying a fee that he cannot afford for activities in which he cannot participate. When money for student activities is taken from the total funds of the institution, what is available for activities will then depend entirely on the financial state of the university. A football team is sometimes the major form of financial support for most student activities, nonathletic as well as athletic.

Lack of money may affect student morale, and in most colleges and universities students are united in their displeasure with the lack of funds available for student activities. In the allocation of funds, however, there is a more difficult problem, which often results in student groups being opposed to each other because of apparent favoritism in the matter of allocation of funds. This point of view was expressed in an editorial in the student newspaper at Clark University. The editor wrote: <sup>19</sup>

Why only 32.5% (of the student activities fund) is allotted to the non-athletic organization is a question which is beyond the comprehension of this bewildered editor. Somehow, we feel that students are more concerned about the Players Club, the Year Book, the Scarlet, and the musical organizations than they are about how the victoryless soccer team is going to do against East Cupcake tomorrow.

We feel that the amount of money to be divided among these non-athletic or-

<sup>19</sup> Editorial in *The Clark Scarlet*, Vol. XXV, No. 6, Oct. 28, 1949.

ganizations is inadequate. We also feel that the method of division leaves much to be desired. At the meeting of the fund committee each organization is represented by one or more students. Each student representative states his budget and asks for a certain amount of money. Every other student, recognizing that if one group gets money, his own organization may get correspondingly less, is quick to jump on his rivals. It may not necessarily follow, but it seems to us that the committee itself cannot help but be influenced by the amount of discussion and protest raised about any request. Perhaps this is as it should be, but it is too easy for all other organizations to gang up on one—cut that one to the bone—and to thereby make up their own deficits. It is far too easy.

The state of affairs described by this student editor is not unusual, but it does indicate that the students have not yet achieved a point of maturity where they will be concerned with the justness of all the appropriations rather than merely with the amount of the appropriation for the activity that they represent. Students should play a major role in the developing of a plan for the just allocation of whatever funds are available. Once the students have decided upon a method of distribution, that is the way the money should be distributed without faculty interference. Certain limitations may have to be set down originally, and the students should be made aware of these limitations. As long as the students operate within them, however, the responsibility for the spending of the money, and what happens as a result, should be a student responsibility. Young people cannot learn responsibility by being continually protected from the results of their own errors.

Another sore point to be faced by a student-faculty committee on student activities is the question of restrictions on participation. It has been some years since Strang<sup>20</sup> stated that "the regulation of student participation is a counseling, rather than an administrative problem," but a large majority of colleges throughout the country still restrict participation by various arbitrary means. It is rather conflicting to talk about individual differences and then to set up an arbitrary rule to be used for all students in making decisions on the question of participation in student activities. A student activities committee should not regulate participation in activities, but it should act to see that participation is decided on an individual rather than on a group basis. Some students participate more than they should, but what usually happens is that the very students who would benefit most from participation are those who are not allowed to participate because of low academic grades. It would appear to be far more logical to emphasize the participation of many students for growth rather than to place the greater stress on the restriction of the few who tend to overdo participation. Even with these students, however, it may

<sup>20</sup> Strang, Ruth, *Group Activities in College and Secondary School*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941, p. 59.

be that in the long run their learning will be greater and more meaningful, considering their total personality, than if an attempt is made to restrict their participation in activities and increase their academic achievement.

A recent study<sup>21</sup> regarding participation in extracurricular activities by the undergraduate students at the Boston University School of Education gave some rather surprising results. The study indicated that (1) participation was not dependent on the students' commuter status, (2) freshmen participated the least in extracurricular activities, sophomores and juniors the most, (3) physical-education students participated practically not at all in school and university club activities, while over two-thirds of the elementary and secondary students were active participants in such activities.

A third problem that must be faced by a student-activities committee is the administration of student discipline. It is assumed that everything possible will be done to see that student problems never get to the disciplinary stage but are treated as difficulties that may be alleviated by effective counseling. The personnel worker who performs as the counselor should not be a member of an administrative disciplinary committee, although he may make recommendations as to what action should be taken by the committee. There are problems, however, that are disciplinary problems. Some are serious and some are minor. Many of the problems that are viewed by a disciplinary committee should never have got to that committee. The student should simply have been referred to a counselor. Such incidents as throwing water bags out of dormitory windows, insolence in classrooms, and so on are obviously minor difficulties that require the services of a counselor rather than a disciplinarian. There are obviously good reasons for such behavior, and the housing administrators should become concerned with the causes of the behavior. Their objective should be the same as that of the counselor, who will be concerned with helping the student to determine the reasons for his actions so that he may learn to satisfy himself in a more socially acceptable manner.

There are some incidents which may result in placing the student on probationary status or detaching him from the institution. While such incidents may be the business of a disciplinary committee, the services of a counselor are obviously necessary to help the student to adjust to a disturbing situation.

In a situation where several students have been apprehended by the campus police while engaged in extreme sexual deviations, a disciplinary

<sup>21</sup> Furlani, Paul Joseph, and Robert Gerard Hasson, *An Evaluation of the Extracurricular Activities of Four Hundred and Six Boston University School of Education Students in Relation to the Four-Year Teacher Training Program*, unpublished Master's thesis, Boston University, 1952.



committee should know what it is supposed to do, and it should also have some procedural plan to guide it in whatever action is to be taken. Policy should be something that has been planned before an incident occurs, and it should not be a spur-of-the-moment decision. It is obvious that in this phase of the work of the disciplinary committee the students should play a major role. The policies to be followed by the committee should be ones that have received the consideration of a group of both faculty and students. In such deliberations students and faculty should have an equal voice. There is some question, however, about the role of the students in the administrative aspect of the committee's work. The automatic inclusion of students is not necessarily a completely satisfactory solution of this problem, since the history of student action in the judicial function is not too happy. Yet on the other hand, it does not seem completely reasonable to accept students as worthy and responsible individuals and yet hold from them the experiences in the humility that must be learned by all those who are to perform in the role of judge. If students are allowed to be in a position where they are judging their fellow students, they should have already shown some capacity in the matter of self-government. An attitude on the part of the administration of "responsibility once you have proven yourself" would seem to be a much happier one than that of simply indicating that students generally are too immature and therefore cannot be allowed to participate in the administrative functioning of the discipline committee. Some personnel workers feel that the administration, through the president or dean, should reserve the right to veto any committee decision on disciplinary matters. In actual practice this may be a wise provision, and yet it means that the administration feels that it must have a certain authority so that it can overrule the decisions of students. This again indicates a distrust of their capacity. As a practical expedient this might be a good step, but it does mean that students are still being considered as irresponsible individuals who need the controlling hand of the adult as they move forward. If this hand is still needed when an individual has lived for twenty or more years, one might be excused for feeling that his education has been somewhat incomplete.

If students are capable of self-government in dormitories, they should be capable of the same degree of self-government in other aspects of their university life. If students have not already learned self-control in their twelve years of public education, it is the task of institutions of higher learning to work continually to develop young people whose degree of independence is such that they are capable of self-control. Only such people are capable of being responsible citizens in a free and democratic society, where the only real and lasting form of control is the control that each citizen is able to exert over his own behavior.



## *Appendixes*



## APPENDIX 1 *Memorandum to Faculty Advisers on Withdrawals*

TO: All faculty members

FROM: Dugald S. Arbuckle

SUBJECT: Withdrawals

Following is a list of freshmen, sophomores, and juniors who have withdrawn from the School of Education between September, 1951, and February, 1952. The first column after the name indicates the reason for withdrawal, or one of the contributing factors in the student's withdrawal. A blank space means that there is no information available as to why the student withdrew from the school. The second column indicates the name of the adviser of the withdrawing student.

It may be noted that of the 47 withdrawals, 21 withdrew from the physical-education program, 13 withdrew from the secondary-education program, and 13 withdrew from the elementary-education program. When this is compared with the original enrollment of the fall of 1951, it means that the freshman class suffered a loss of 12 per cent, the sophomore class 14 per cent, and the junior class 7 per cent. In areas of study, the physical-education section suffered a loss of 12 per cent, the secondary section 10 per cent, and the elementary section 7 per cent.

The students listed as follows were registered in the School of Education in September, 1951, but are not now registered as full-time students.

Freshmen	Reason	Adviser	Sophomores	Reason	Adviser
Alden, Joan . . . . .	Too young	Miller	Abel, A. B. . . . .	Part-time	Miller
Atkins, P. M. . . . .	Drafted	Miller	Abotson, Joan . . .	Part-time	Miller
Amory, James . . . . .		Miller	Aikson, M. . . . .	Other college	Crossley
Bain, C. . . . .	Service	Miller	Almson, Merrill . .	Too young	Wylie
Barton, Mary . . . . .	Married	Pronovost	Barker, Joseph . .	Other college	Miller
Birrell, H. . . . .	Money	Pronovost	Barkson, H. . . . .	Money	Wylie
Blackton, M. . . . .	Took job	Pronovost	David, Marion . . .	Money	Miller
Bolton, A. . . . .	Detached	Miller	Dearson, H. . . . .	Money	Gunn
Burrows, A. . . . .	Money	Pronovost	Dario, Francis . . .	Detached	Syer
Haldane, R. . . . .	Wife in army	Pronovost	Doyle, T. . . . .	Detached	Sluder
Henry, Mary . . . . .		Miller	Eikan, John . . . . .	Money	Wylie
Hinden, R. . . . .	Personal	Wylie	Ferris, K. . . . .		Syer
Holt, William . . . . .	Part-time	Miller			
Igor, E. . . . .	Part-time	Sluder			
Jepson, X. . . . .		Sluder			
Jones, F. . . . .	S.P.R.	Sluder			
Jardin, P. . . . .	Service	Sluder			
Karam, E. . . . .	Service	Miller			

## APPENDIX 2 *Interview Card Used by Admission Counselors*

BOSTON UNIVERSITY			
Name			For yr. ....
Last	First	Middle	Dept. ....
Address			Age ....
Number	Street		Tel. ....
City or Post Office		State	
School			
H. S. Course of study			Date of grad. ....
Other educational experience			
Activities since graduation			
Military service			Entry date
Branch			Discharge date
Name			For yr. ....
Last	First	Middle	Dept. ....
Address			Age ....
Number	Street		Tel. ....
City or Post Office		State	
School			
H. S. Course of study			Date of grad. ....
(Not to be filled in by candidate)			
Interest			
Prof. Plans.			
BOSTON UNIVERSITY			



*(Not to be filled in by candidate)*

Catalogue	Other	Application
School record		
Tests		Date
Employment		
Extracurricular		
Interest		
Prof. plans		
Recommendations		
Int. C.		
Ob.		
Att.		
E.		
V. & M.		Date
App.		Sig.

*(Not to be filled in by candidate)*

Catalogue	Application
Pictorial	Transcript
Monograph	Scholarship
Other	
School Record	
Tests	
Extracurricular	
Recommendations	

Date  
Sig.

# APPENDIX 3 Rating Scale Used in Secondary Schools

Return to: Boston University  
Office of Administration  
708 Commonwealth Avenue  
Boston 15, Massachusetts

## Personality Record (Confidential)

Room \_\_\_\_\_  
Grade \_\_\_\_\_

### PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF

School \_\_\_\_\_ Last Name \_\_\_\_\_ First Name \_\_\_\_\_ Middle Name \_\_\_\_\_  
Town or City \_\_\_\_\_ State \_\_\_\_\_

The following characterizations are descriptions of behavior; they are not ratings. It is recommended that where possible the judgments of a number of the pupil's present teachers be indicated by use of the following method:

Example OF PURPOSE	Purposeless		Vociferous		Potential		Self-directed		Purposeful	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
1. SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE										
2. INDUSTRY										
3. INITIATIVE										
4. INFLUENCE										
5. CONCERN FOR OTHERS										
6. RESPONSIBILITY										
7. EMOTIONAL STABILITY										

Significant school activities:

Special interests or abilities:

Significant limitations (physical, social, mental):

Additional information which may be helpful such as probable financial needs or work experience:

Principal's recommendation (Specific statement concerning the applicant's fitness for acceptance):

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Title \_\_\_\_\_

This Personality Record is available as a separate form, *i.e.*, the Secondary-School Record is omitted, leaving one side blank.

(By permission of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the NEA, Washington, D.C.)

APPENDIX 4    *Admission Counselor's Confidential Report*

STEPHENS COLLEGE

..... Number .....

Name	Street	City	State
------	--------	------	-------

Name of Parent .....

Church Preference ..... Member ..... Phone .....

Birthplace ..... Date of Birth ..... Height ..... Weight .....

My investigation indicates that this girl's health is: Superior ....., Good ....., Average ....., Fair ....., Poor .....

Color of eyes is: .....; of hair is: .....

I do ..... do not ..... recommend this applicant for favorable consideration by the Board of Admissions.

Medical blanks should ..... should not ..... be sent. Date .....

Scholarship: Poor .... Fair .... Average .... Good .... Superior .... Rank .....

Citizenship: Poor .... Fair .... Average .... Good .... Superior .... Size of class .....

Stephens College is her first ....., second ....., third .... choice.

She will enter Stephens as a: Senior ...., Junior ...., Sophomore .... September, 19....  
February, 19....

She plans to attend Stephens College: 1 yr. ...., 2 yrs. ...., 3 yrs. ....

Her occupational interest is: .....

.....

After Stephens, to what University, or professional school does she plan to transfer? .....

.....

Has her school attendance been regular? ..... Comments: .....

Her record during the past two years shows growth: Scholastically .... Socially ....

Suggestions for selection of an adviser .....

Suggestions to adviser: .....

1. General field of interests:

2. Special interests:

3. Necessity for full transfer credit:

She plans to work at Stephens ..... Secretary ....., Library ....., Dining Room ....  
Yes or No

List all extraclass activities (in and out of school) in which this student has participated during her high-school experience, including offices held.

[on reverse of sheet]

1. Personal evaluation:	Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Superior
Appearance	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Health and vigor	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Courtesy	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Cooperation	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Adaptability	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Self-confidence	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....



Expression	....	....	.....	....	.....
Dependability	....	....	.....	....	.....
Intelligence	....	....	.....	....	.....
Initiative	....	....	.....	....	.....
Enthusiasm and industry	....	....	.....	....	.....
Interest and aptitudes	....	....	.....	....	.....
Emotional stability	....	....	.....	....	.....
Social adjustment	....	....	.....	....	.....

## 2. Needs:

## 3. Family background:

Name of parents

Home

Financial status

Parents' education

Sibling education

## 4. Social background:

Personal freedom

Dates

Camp experience

Work experience

Handicaps

## 5. General comments:

Date: .....

(Admissions Counselor)

# APPENDIX 5 A Card Used to Keep a Record of Application

NAME	AGE				M	F	V	C	DEPT
	FOR YR.				REG.				
ADDRESS	SCHOOL				GRAD				
TEL. NO.	DATE				PROGRESS				DATE
Inquiry	App. received				Accepted				
Source	Fee received				IBM & Dorm.				
Interview	App reactivated				Vet. Center				
Catalogue	Referral from				Tracer I				
App. Sent	Service record				Tracer II				
Schp. Info.	Transcript sent				Withdraw				
Letter I	Test mail appt.				Reason				
Pictorial	Test mail rec'd				Inactivated				
Letter II	BU test appt.				All U Rej.				
Letter III	CEEB sched.				Dept. Rej.				
					Folder to				
DEPARTMENTAL COPY									

**BOSTON UNIVERSITY**

Name			For yr. ....
Last	First	Middle	Dept. ....
Address			Age ....
Number		Street	Tel. ....
City or Post Office		State	
School			
H. S. Course of study		Date of grad.	
Other educational experience			
Activities since graduation			
Military service		Entry date	
Branch		Discharge date	

279

## APPENDIX 7 Undergraduate Application for Admission

### BOSTON UNIVERSITY



OFFICE OF ADMISSIONS  
705 Commonwealth Avenue  
Boston 15, Massachusetts

#### APPLICATION FOR ADMISSION — UNDERGRADUATE

Please print in ink or type

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
LAST FIRST MIDDLE Age \_\_\_\_\_

Permanent Address \_\_\_\_\_ Tel. No. \_\_\_\_\_  
STREET CITY OR POST OFFICE STATE

Local Address \_\_\_\_\_ Tel. No. \_\_\_\_\_  
STREET CITY OR POST OFFICE STATE

Date you propose to enter \_\_\_\_\_

Applicants will fill out and return this form to the OFFICE OF ADMISSIONS, BOSTON UNIVERSITY, 705 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts. The application is not effective unless accompanied by the application fee of \$10, check for which should be made payable to Boston University. This fee is not refundable.

Be sure each item is completed and the correct information given.

**Transfer Applicants:** Applicants for admission by transfer from another college or applicants who have been enrolled at any time in a course of higher study should return this form, together with the application fee of \$10, directly to the Registrar of the School or College to which they wish to apply for admission. In addition, transfer applicants must ask the Registrar of the institution previously attended to forward to the Registrar of the School or College a transcript of all previous college records and a statement of honorable dismissal.



**Directions:** Indicate below the College or School to which you are applying, and the field (or fields) of specialization in which you are most interested.

☐ College of Liberal Arts  
 Indicate the field in which you may wish to specialize \_\_\_\_\_  
☐ College of Business Administration (Please check one)  
     ☐ Day Division   ☐ Evening Division  
☐ College of Practical Arts and Letters (Please check one)  
     ☐ Secretarial and Allied Studies   ☐ Foods and Nutrition   ☐ Clothing   ☐ Retailing   ☐ Applied Art  
     ☐ Interior Decoration   ☐ Teaching of Business Subjects   ☐ Teaching of Home Economics   ☐ Teaching of Art  
☐ College of Music (Please check one)  
     ☐ Applied Music \_\_\_\_\_ VOICE OR INSTRUMENT (SPECIFY THE INSTRUMENT)   ☐ Church Music  
     ☐ Composition   ☐ Music Education   ☐ Musicology   ☐ Theory  
☐ Sargent College of Physical Education  
     ☐ Physical Education   ☐ Physical Therapy  
☐ College of General Education  
☐ College of Industrial Technology  
     ☐ B.S. degree   ☐ A.S. degree   ☐ Certificate  
☐ School of Education  
     ☐ Physical Education (Men)  
     ☐ Secondary Education with a major in: \_\_\_\_\_   ☐ Elementary Education  
☐ School of Nursing  
☐ Junior College Division

INDICATE SUBJECT MATTER

Have you at any time applied for admission to another School or College of Boston University?  
 If so, to which School or College? \_\_\_\_\_

### Entrance Tests

Many of the Schools and Colleges of Boston University require entrance examinations. Be sure that you ascertain and understand the requirements which apply to your candidacy and that you make the proper arrangements therefor. In the event that you have taken or are scheduled to take examinations, please indicate as listed below.

#### College Entrance Examination Board

Scholastic Aptitude Test  
Achievement Tests

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_

#### Nursing Examinations

Test for Nurses (Potts Test)  
National League of Nursing Education  
Pre-nurse and Guidance Test

DATE TAKEN OR SCHEDULED	

Have you ever taken the Boston University Guidance Battery of tests while you were in high school? Yes ( ) No ( )  
If so, when? \_\_\_\_\_

Have you ever taken any other examination such as those given by the Veterans Administration or private counseling services? Yes ( ) No ( )

If so, list the name, place and date of examination:

---



---



---

#### Service Record with the United States Armed Forces

Specify length of service, branch of service, and educational training received in service, and indicate dates. Veterans should supply photostatic copies of service qualification record and discharge.

---



---



---



---

### Scholastic Record

List all schools attended since the completion of eighth grade (include junior high, senior high and all schools subsequently attended). (If additional space is needed, attach supplementary sheet).

NAME OF SCHOOL	ADDRESS	ATTENDANCE		DATE OF GRADUATION	TYPE OF COURSE (COLLEGE PREPARATORY, COMMERCIAL, INDUSTRIAL)
		FROM	TO		

### Activities

List below any school, community, or other activities in which you have participated.

ACTIVITY	YEARS OF PARTICIPATION	OFFICES HELD AND HONORS RECEIVED	ACTIVITY	YEARS OF PARTICIPATION	OFFICES HELD AND HONORS RECEIVED

\* Indicate the years of participation in school years as follows: '47-'48, '48-'49, etc., calendar years 1947-1948 etc., or Summer 1947

*Your name should be written in ink on the back of the photograph to be pasted or clipped in this space.*

*Submission of the photograph is not required.*

**Family Data**

Father's name in full \_\_\_\_\_

Occupation \_\_\_\_\_

Name of Firm where Employed \_\_\_\_\_  
Active ( ) Retired ( )

Name of College attended, if any \_\_\_\_\_

CITY \_\_\_\_\_  
STATE \_\_\_\_\_**Biographical Data**

Date of birth \_\_\_\_\_ 19\_\_\_\_

Are you a citizen of the United States? Yes ( ) No ( )

Marital Status (check one)

Single ( ) Widowed ( )  
Married ( ) Divorced ( )

Number of dependents . . . . . ( )

If married give wife's (husband's) occupation other than homemaker; college attended, if any. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Is your health

Good? ( ) Fair? ( ) Poor? ( )

Height \_\_\_\_\_ Weight \_\_\_\_\_

Are there any physical factors that will make it difficult for you to carry a full college load or that should be considered in planning your program? If so, describe  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_**Dormitory Plans**

(Note your living arrangements for the first college year—be sure to check your catalogue regarding dormitory regulations)

Do you plan to live in a dormitory? . . . . . Yes No

Do you plan to live at home? . . . . . ( ) ( )

Do you plan to secure permission for living at-  
\_\_\_\_\_



**Are your parents living?**

Yes No  
 Father ( ) ( )  
 Mother ( ) ( )

Mother's occupation or profession other than homemaker, if any

Name of College attended, if any

Ages of Brothers ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )  
 College attended, or attending, if any

Ages of Sisters ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )  
 College attended, or attending, if any

If you have a legal guardian, give name and address

If University charges are to be paid by someone other than your parents or guardian, indicate by name and address.

rangements other than those prescribed in the catalogue? . . . . . ( ) ( )

If you plan to live elsewhere than in the University dormitories, give name, address and relationship of person with whom you wish to live.

**Financial Plans**

Do you expect to seek employment during the college year?

If so, how much do you need to earn?

If you are a veteran, have you been declared or shall you be declared eligible for benefits under one of the following:

Yes No  
 Public Law No. 346 (G. I. Law) . . . . . ( ) ( )  
 Public Law No. 16 (Rehabilitation) . . . . . ( ) ( )

**Employment Record (from date of secondary school entrance to the present)**

POSITION HELD	DATE	NAME OF EMPLOYER	ADDRESS

## References

### 1. SECONDARY SCHOOL REFERENCE

(Name and address of principal or headmaster of secondary school from which you have been graduated or will be graduated)

NAME OF PRINCIPAL OR HEADMASTER	
_____	
SCHOOL	
_____	
STREET	
_____	
CITY OR POST OFFICE	STATE
_____	_____

### 2. SPECIAL REFERENCE (Optional)

(If you have had specialized training in an area related to your educational plan, i.e., music, art, sports, etc., indicate special teacher)

NAME	
_____	
STREET	
_____	
CITY OR POST OFFICE	STATE
_____	_____

### 3. GENERAL REFERENCE

(An adult, not a relative, whom we may consult in your behalf)

NAME	
_____	
STREET	
_____	
CITY OR POST OFFICE	STATE
_____	_____

### 4. BOSTON UNIVERSITY REFERENCE (Optional)

(If any of your closest relatives or friends have been graduated from, have attended, or are attending Boston University now, please list the information requested below)

NAME	
_____	
STREET	
_____	
CITY OR POST OFFICE	STATE
_____	_____
RELATIONSHIP	
_____	
SCHOOL OR COLLEGE	
_____	
NAME	
_____	
STREET	
_____	
CITY OR POST OFFICE	STATE
_____	_____
RELATIONSHIP	
_____	
SCHOOL OR COLLEGE	
_____	

*In a carefully prepared statement in your own words and handwriting, please indicate how you came to be interested in attending Boston University and how you expect your experience here will contribute to your future. (Not more than 200 words.)*

[illegible]

**Signed—**

APPLICANT

**I have read and approve the above application.**

Date \_\_\_\_\_

**Signed—**

**PARENT OR GUARDIAN**

APPENDIX 8 *Application for Admission*

## Secondary-School Record

Name, in full \_\_\_\_\_ Sex \_\_\_\_\_  
M. or F. \_\_\_\_\_  
Home Address \_\_\_\_\_  
Birth Date \_\_\_\_\_ City \_\_\_\_\_ State \_\_\_\_\_  
First Name \_\_\_\_\_ Middle Name \_\_\_\_\_  
Number and Street \_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Parent or Guardian \_\_\_\_\_  
Name of School \_\_\_\_\_  
Location of School \_\_\_\_\_  
Entrance Date \_\_\_\_\_  
Month \_\_\_\_\_ Year \_\_\_\_\_  
Was graduated \_\_\_\_\_  
Will be graduated \_\_\_\_\_  
Withdraw \_\_\_\_\_  
Month \_\_\_\_\_ Year \_\_\_\_\_  
College recommending mark \_\_\_\_\_  
Class periods are \_\_\_\_\_ minutes, \_\_\_\_\_ times a week, \_\_\_\_\_ weeks a year. Passing mark is \_\_\_\_\_  
Describe your marking system if unusual: \_\_\_\_\_  
List other secondary schools attended: \_\_\_\_\_

## CLASS RECORD

## Notes

Specify laboratory periods, variations in time allowance for subjects, or any other information needed to interpret this record. Such other information as Regents grades, College Boards, and record of a fifth year may be entered in the Extra column. If a school does not use marks, enter here an estimate of success achieved.

If no marks are given, check. Circle marks or checks for half-year subjects.												
Subject	Grade								Units*			
	Year →	9	10	11	12	Extra	Credits					
English												
Lat.												
Math.												



\*A unit represents the study of a subject a full school year, four or five periods a week, or the equivalent. One unit equals two credits, unless defined otherwise.

[illegible]

\*Give basis on which percentiles were computed. Include any available interpretation of tests on an enclosure.

**Applicant ranks** April 17, 1968  
**in a graduating class of** 1968  
of students who were admitted to the University of California at Berkeley in 1968

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Title

Copyright, 1941, by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. All rights reserved. This blank, or any parts thereof, may not be reproduced except by permission.

APPENDIX 9    *Orientation Evaluation Form*

EVALUATION OF THE PETERBORO TRIP

Would you please indicate below your reaction to some of the activities you recently experienced at Peterboro Camp by placing a check mark at the appropriate place. Your comments will help us in planning next year's activities. We would appreciate any extra comments you may wish to make.

	Very Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory
1. The bus trip	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
2. The food	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
3. The sleeping accommodations	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
4. The talks by upperclassmen	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
5. The talks by faculty	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
6. The camp fire	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
7. The organized athletic events	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
8. The nonorganized athletic events	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
9. The evening dancing	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
10. The trip as a whole	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Comments:			

## APPENDIX 10 *Newsletter to Applicants*

*Boston University  
Newsletter*

*Vol. IV, No. 3, August, '52*

*Student Life at  
Boston University*

Dear Student of Boston University:

Our Newsletter is part of the orientation material and of the many ideas put before you in the hope that they will be helpful to you in many ways as you become acquainted with Boston University. The University is actually made up of many Schools and Colleges, each one with a particular responsibility in higher education, each with its own faculty, student government, activities, social events, and interests. Although you will find your deepest loyalty to your own School or College, you will discover true greatness in the University as a whole and will develop loyalty to it.

Here you will find the best educational interest, high standards, distinguished scholars, excellent equipment, and an atmosphere in which you can learn much. I hope that you will become well acquainted with the traditions and customs in Boston University and will help to enrich, create and enhance them. If you go beyond a minimum interest, you will develop a life-long affection for your school.

May this be the beginning of a satisfying educational experience for you. Be assured of my personal desire for your welfare, and of the interest of the administration and the faculty of the entire University in you.

With my best wishes always, I am

Cordially yours,  
HAROLD C. CASE, President

Hi

Now that you have chosen to join us, we want to help you to get settled.

We older dogs aren't going to give you a pep talk on what to work for in class and school activities; that decision will be entirely yours. You will find that it isn't necessary to choose between studies and activities since we believe the latter to be an important part of our educational experience.

Included herein is a sample of our activities, services, and history with what we believe will be some helpful suggestions.

Good luck! Our welcome mat is out for you.

First Daze

Your very first few weeks of school will be rough because everything is so new. It is a chore for the frosh unacquainted with the campus to know where to go when, and when to do what. You will find your college catalogue an invaluable aid, and it is a good idea to have it with you during registration.

Every new student will have several appointments to keep for various purposes. Promptness in keeping them is essential. Failure to do so will ball up your schedule as well as that of the already overloaded and harassed administration. Above all, keep calm and don't lose your sense of humor.

History

Way back in 1839, the first of the 16 Schools and Colleges of Boston University was founded. In 1869 the University was granted its charter.

Among the many "firsts" of the University are the distinctions of being the first completely organized University in the world to admit women to all its Colleges on full equality with men, and the first institution to make arrangements for intercontinental systems of study. Among the many outstanding men who have served the University was Alexander Graham Bell, who invented the telephone while on our faculty.

Today, New England's largest University is dedicated to serving the needs of our society.

### Student Organizations

You will find that extracurricular activities are an integral part of a well-rounded educational program. In addition to giving us an opportunity to put into practice some of the ideas we develop in the classroom, broadening our outlook and enriching our interest, they provide us with an opportunity to develop intelligent leadership for wholesome community living.

At Boston U., the large and diverse program enables each of us to find a number of activities in which we wish to participate. **DON'T FALL INTO A RUT!** Investigate various groups before deciding where to expend your efforts.

### Academic Program

The most important thing we do at school, naturally, is attend classes. Most of them last 50 minutes. Be alert and attentive in these sessions. You'll find it's fun to learn, and it will pay when you study for finals.

You'll soon become acquainted with your profs. Learn their names and titles so you can address them properly. If you cooperate you'll find that they will want to help you, so feel free to ask their advice any time.

Grades are a measure of your progress; therefore, it is necessary for you to make the best possible record while in school.

### Intercollegiate Athletics

First-rate athletic teams have been and will continue to be produced at Boston U. Our football team was ranked 16 in the nation in the final AP poll last year. Our hockey team was ranked first in the east by the writers, coaches, and players. Our track team has won the Eastern and NEAAU titles the past two years.

Our home football games are played in Fenway Park, the home of the Red Sox, and you will receive free tickets to all of these games as well as many other University events.

We also have an ever growing program of minor and intramural sports.

### University Services

Before you're here long, you'll discover University services which are indispensable in making life run more smoothly. You won't have to run downtown if you need a three-cent stamp, pencil, or flu shot. Competent counsel and help on any problem—personal, veteran or classroom—is available. The University will help you work your way through college and then help you find a job afterwards. Some of the major services are placement, counseling, and health. These and other services are for your benefit and it is to your advantage to utilize them to their full potentiality.

### Religious Activities

Boston University has an extensive religious program for all who wish to participate. In addition to the Dean of the Chapel, there are Chaplains serving the three major faiths. There are also various organizations: Brotherhood Council (Interfaith), Hillel (Jewish), Newman Club (Catholic), Christian Association, and Protestant Clubs. Thus, a



full program of religious activities is sponsored by the University and is designed to meet your personal and religious needs.

You will also find that the local churches and synagogues supplement the campus program.

### Living Equipment

While we couldn't begin to suggest a complete wardrobe, here are a few suggestions which should prove helpful.

#### SNAPPY TERRIER COEDS

	this	for
A tailored suit		Date, class, church
Smooth dress, hat, heels, hose, gloves		Teas, dances, etc.
Jeans, plaid shirt		Sports participation, picnics

#### TOP DOGS

	this	for
Suit, shirt, tie		Dances, church
Sport jacket, tie, shirt		Class, informal parties
Old clothes		Exercise, rallies

### Social Activities

There are a number of major and minor events in which you will want to participate. You will find most of them well publicized in various ways but it is a good idea to read the Boston University News (free student newspaper) each week for full details.

At various times during the first few days there will be different events sponsored for the freshmen. You should go to everything, even if your feet do hurt and your nerves are frayed. The sooner you become acquainted with your fellow students and your new surroundings, the sooner you'll be at home at Boston U.

THIS EDITION OF THE NEWSLETTER PREPARED BY SCARLET KEY, STUDENT HONORARY ACTIVITIES SOCIETY, FOR THE FRESHMEN ORIENTATION COMMITTEE AND THE OFFICE OF ADMISSIONS

## APPENDIX 11 *Sophomore Interviews*

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Interviewing Committee \_\_\_\_\_

Four characteristics are noted below. Check the answer which best describes the student with regard to each of these characteristics and add any pertinent specific comments.

	Yes	No	Comment
<b>I. Generally, the degree of his participation was satisfactory.</b>			
Does he make a forceful presentation?	_____	_____	_____
Does he grasp opportunities to present his beliefs?	_____	_____	_____
Can he present his ideas without appearing to monopolize the conversation?	_____	_____	_____
Does he contribute more than the student who speaks only when spoken to?	_____	_____	_____
Is his contribution of some importance?	_____	_____	_____
<b>II. His general appearance was satisfactory.</b>			
He dresses with good taste.	_____	_____	_____
His posture is good.	_____	_____	_____
His clothes are well arranged.	_____	_____	_____
His dress is clean.	_____	_____	_____
His dress is appropriate.	_____	_____	_____
<b>III. His poise was satisfactory.</b>			
He enters actively into the discussion.	_____	_____	_____
He appears to be at ease.	_____	_____	_____
He has a pleasant attitude.	_____	_____	_____
He appears to enjoy the interview.	_____	_____	_____
<b>IV. His speech was satisfactory.</b>			
Can he be heard easily?	_____	_____	_____
Can he be understood easily?	_____	_____	_____
Is his pronunciation acceptable?	_____	_____	_____
Is his grammar correct?	_____	_____	_____
Is his voice pleasant?	_____	_____	_____
<b>V. Recommended for special speech test.</b>			
_____	_____	_____	_____

### General

Does the individual have any mannerisms, characteristics, or qualities which might interfere with his success as a teacher? *Please note.*

# APPENDIX 12 Junior Interviews

Full Name \_\_\_\_\_ Year of Graduation \_\_\_\_\_  
 (Last) (Middle) (First) Date \_\_\_\_\_

Interviewing Committee \_\_\_\_\_

Check the answer which best describes the student with regard to each of the characteristics noted below. Add any pertinent and specific comments. Please *check* all comments, especially the last two under "Speech."

	Yes	No	Comment
I. <i>His general professional attitude appears to be satisfactory.</i>	_____	_____	_____
The School of Education was his first choice for a college education.	_____	_____	_____
He intends to be a teacher.	_____	_____	_____
He has a reasonably clear concept of the job of the teacher.	_____	_____	_____
He indicates that major decisions have already been made.	_____	_____	_____
He believes in the importance of teaching as a profession.	_____	_____	_____
II. <i>He gives satisfactory indications of leadership qualities.</i>	_____	_____	_____
He is aware of courses related to his future position.	_____	_____	_____
He can present his ideas clearly and without appearing to monopolize the conversation.	_____	_____	_____
He can make a forceful presentation.	_____	_____	_____
He can listen to others' ideas without appearing dogmatic and narrow.	_____	_____	_____
He believes that the teacher should aid in bringing about positive social changes.	_____	_____	_____
He can grasp opportunities to present his beliefs.	_____	_____	_____
III. <i>He shows satisfactory insight into current educational problems.</i>	_____	_____	_____
He is aware of the major issues of the day in the world of education.	_____	_____	_____
He gives indications of logical ideas with regard to these problems.	_____	_____	_____
He shows some insight into the methods of attacking these problems.	_____	_____	_____
He shows some understanding of the problems of teacher training.	_____	_____	_____
IV. <i>His speech was satisfactory.</i>	_____	_____	_____
Can he be understood easily?	_____	_____	_____
Can he be heard easily?	_____	_____	_____
Is his pronunciation acceptable?	_____	_____	_____
Is his grammar correct?	_____	_____	_____
Is his voice pleasant?	_____	_____	_____
Speech satisfactory for practice teaching without further check.	_____	_____	_____
Recommended for special speech test.	_____	_____	_____

## General

Does the individual have any mannerisms, characteristics, or qualities which might interfere with his success as a teacher? *Please note.*

## APPENDIX 13    *Instructions with Regard to Interviews for New Students*

Two types of students are being interviewed—freshmen and transfers. The purpose of the freshmen interviews is socialization and orientation, and the chief concern of the faculty committees should be to make the student feel at home and to give him at least the beginning of a realization that the School of Education is concerned with him as a complete person rather than as an intellectual entity. This interview is not a cross-examination, but rather a mutual get-together for the benefit of the students and the faculty. Many students will probably feel they are being “examined,” and the committees should attempt to dispel this notion. In these interviews the students should find out something about the faculty members and the school, and committee members should answer more questions than they ask. The conversation may run in any direction that the student may choose, and faculty members should attempt to see that the *students* do get something out of the interview.

The purpose of the transfer interviews, in addition to orientation, is to note specific items, such as degree of participation, dress, poise, and speech, so that immediate remedial action may be taken if it is deemed necessary.

The committees are provided with two forms—one for freshmen and one for transfers. Will the chairman of each committee see that a form for each student is returned to me? Unless there are very definite characteristics that should be noted, the freshmen forms should be merely checked indicating the presence of the student and returned to the Personnel Office. The transfer forms should be filled out as indicated.

Three students will be interviewed by a committee of three faculty members for one-half hour. The faculty member whose name appears first acts as chairman of the committee.

An attempt should be made at all times to create a permissive atmosphere so that the student will feel free to say what he wishes. It is desirable that the conversation be student- rather than faculty-dominated.



[illegible]

[illegible]



HONORS. LIST ALL HONORS RECEIVED, POSITIONS HELD, AND ACTIVITIES IN WHICH YOU HAVE PARTICIPATED		SUBJECT CHECK LIST (for counselor use)	
		INSTRUCTIONS	
		CHECK ONCE SUBJECTS YOU HAVE STUDIED TWICE. THOSE YOU CAN TEACH, INDICATE NO. OF SEMESTER HRS EARNED AT THE LEFT OF EACH SUBJECT.	
RATINGS AND AWARDS		LIST OFFICIAL RATINGS AND AWARDS THAT YOU HOLD, SUCH AS SUPT. CERTIFICATE, TEACHING CERTIFICATE, AMERICAN PHYSIOTHERAPY MEMBERSHIP, LIFE SAVING CERTIFICATE	
		FOODS CLOTHING LATIN FRENCH SPANISH GERMAN ENG. LIT. AMERICAN LIT. POETRY ENG. COMP. DRAMATICS PUBLIC SPEAKING JOURNALISM ALGEBRA GEOMETRY TRIGONOMETRY PHYSICS CHEMISTRY	
<p>THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REGISTRATION DEPENDS UPON THE COMPLETENESS OF YOUR RECORDS, TO COMPLETE YOUR REGISTRATION FILE THE FOLLOWING WITH THE PLACEMENT SERVICE:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE RECORD: Complete on special form included with registration material or submit official college transcript.</li> <li>2. CANDIDATE'S STATEMENT: Submit on 8½ x 11 sheet of paper a concise, carefully worded statement which may be used by an employer in evaluating your interests, abilities, educational objectives, and experiences.</li> <li>3. BIOGRAPHICAL BLANKS: Complete sets in detail. One of these together with copies of references will be sent when you are recommended by the Placement Service. Neatness and accuracy are important.</li> </ol> <p>REFERENCES: Use reference forms provided by the Placement Service. (Note directions on forms.)</p> <p>IMPORTANT:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Arrange a personal interview with Placement Counselor after completing registration.</li> <li>2. Confidential papers are sent at the request of employing officials and not at the request of the registrant.</li> <li>3. Up-to-date records are essential for effective placement.</li> </ol>			
COMMENTS:			



[illegible]

# APPENDIX 16 Card Used by Placement Office

## QUALIFICATION RECORD

(To be filled out in ink)

### B. U. PLACEMENT SERVICE

( ) Man ( ) Woman

NAME.....

Date.....

( ) Part Time

BOSTON ADDRESS.....

Telephone.....

( ) Summer

HOME ADDRESS.....

Telephone.....

( ) Part Time Summer

Age.....

Married  
or single.....

Dept. of BU.....

Class.....

Weight.....

Height.....

Majoring in.....

Type of work preferred.....

CHECK ONCE ✓ THE KIND OF WORK YOU CAN DO. CHECK TWICE √ THE KINDS OF WORK IN WHICH YOU HAVE EXPERIENCE.

1. Typewriting	12. Chauffeur	23. Manual labor	33. Entertainment
2. Stenography	13. Auto License	24. Telephone oper.	34. Social Service
3. Clerical	14. Own your car?	25. Gardener	35. Playground
4. Bookkeeping	15. Waitress or Waiter	26. Music	36. Camp Counselor
5. Figuring	16. Bus boy	27. Care children	37. Swimming
6. Statistics	17. Bell boy	28. Household ast.	38. Photography
7. Surveys	18. Wash dishes	29. Usher.	39. Nature Study
8. Selling, retail	19. Soda clerk	30. Research	40. Arts & Crafts
9. Selling, comm'n.	20. Cooking	31. Tutoring	41. Tennis
10. Hotel clerk	21. Cashier	Subjs. _____	42. Dancing
11. Night watchman	22. Elevator license?	_____	43. Work for Rm. & Bd.
		32. Bus. Mch. Oper.	44. Proofreading

IMPORTANT—KEEP PLACEMENT SERVICE INFORMED OF CHANGES IN ADDRESS, CLASS SCHEDULES, INTERESTS, AND POSITIONS SECURED.



## APPENDIX 17 Information Card Filed in Placement Office

### Boston University Placement Service

*A survey of vocational plans — Assists the Placement Service in serving employers and school officials — Filling out this card does not represent registering for employment.*

Print Full Name.....  
 School or College.....  
 Degree Date.....January.....June.....Aug.....

Home or Permanent Address.....  
 Present Address.....

Age.....Marital Status.....No. of Children.....

Candidate for what degree?.....Major Study.....Minor Study.....

Are you a transfer student?.....Do you plan graduate study?.....

Are you restricted to any geographic location?.....Section Preferred.....

Subject to military service?.....Previous Armed Service.....

Vocational Plans and Objectives (Be specific as possible — Use reverse side if necessary).....

.....

.....

.....

When are you available for full-time placement?.....

Do you plan registering at the Placement Service for assistance?.....



APPENDIX 18 *Employer Information Card Used  
in Placement Office*

**Boston University Placement Service**

### Employer Card

Institution or Company		Date
Address		Telephone
Business		
Person to Interview		Title
1. POSITION	DATE	2. POSITION
		DATE
		3. POSITION
		DATE
MAN OR WOMAN	AGE	MAN OR WOMAN
		AGE
EXPERIENCE		EXPERIENCE
ADVANCEMENT		ADVANCEMENT
SALARY		SALARY
SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS		SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS

[illegible]

## APPENDIX 19 *Information Form Used by Teachers*

### NEW YORK UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Please use this form to record any information you feel free to contribute to our cumulative record on any of your students.

Name of Student \_\_\_\_\_

Course # \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

Instructor \_\_\_\_\_

*Comments:*

*Recommendations or Suggestions:*

## APPENDIX 20 *Information Form on Teachers' Freshman Advisees*

Name	Adviser	Category	Name	Adviser	Category
Abbott, F. ....	Miller	.	Erve, Mary .....	Gunn	
Acrey, Jane .....	Miller	. I	Farley, Grace .....	Gunn	S
Alcott, Mary .....	Read		Farr, Matilda .....	Irwin	I
Amount, John .....	Miller	S	Ferry, Tony .....	Crossley	. AI
Asley, James .....	Miller	. S	Field, Ruth .....	Read	.
Baker, Peter .....	Wylie		Full, T. ....	Miller	I
Barney, Hilda .....	Wylie	.	Gall, Mary Ann ...	Miller	S
Burn, Ruth .....	Miller		Galley, J. ....	Miller	S
Carey, Patricia ....	Crossley	S	Gamell, W. ....	Crossley	I
Chinley, Harold ...	Murphy	. IA	Garry, Earnestine ..	Crossley	. IA
Crock, Betty Ann ..	Crossley	.	Gate, Herbert .....	Miller	. AI
Crowther, Marie ..	Crossley		Gore, Quentin ....	Irwin	.
Curey, R. ....	Crossley	I	Gordon, Mary .....	Miller	I
Curt, J. ....	Murphy	S	Gouley, Hilda .....	Gunn	.
Dale, Robert .....	Murphy	. A	Graham, Patricia ..	Crossley	S
Darling, Thomas ..	Murphy	I	Grand, George ....	Crossley	. IA
Dave, Roy .....	Crossley	. IA	Haye, Gregory ....	Miller	I
Daw, Earnest .....	Read		Healkey, Peter ....	Miller	. AI
Dowling, Daniel ...	Gunn	. A	Hilton, S. ....	Miller	
Ellison, Robert ....	Miller	.	Ibertson, Mary ....	Sluder	. I
Emery, James .....	Crossley	. IA	Irvington, J. ....	Sluder	
Erbert, Peter .....	Irwin	. IA	Jones, J. P. ....	Miller	.

## APPENDIX 21 *Statement of Client*

Much has been written by Rogers and counselors of the Rogerian school about the advantages of the nondirective approach to counseling. Perhaps someone in the odd position of struggling through the difficult adjustments necessary for becoming nondirective in his contacts with students and with others who come to him with problems, on the one hand, and also undergoing therapeutic treatment of a directive nature on the other hand, may be able to list some reactions to directive methods. These methods seem to have presented blocks and built up resistance that might have been avoided if nondirective methods had been maintained, or at least used more extensively, in order to help readjustment proceed at a faster rate. It certainly takes every ounce of control a human being can muster to keep from pouring out advice that seems from the vantage point of experience, maturity, and accumulated odd bits of intellectual information to be of infinite value; to refrain from prying questions that satisfy our intellectual fascination of diagnosing each intricate pattern of personality, or even from allowing one's attention to wander into this field; to overcome the habit of a lifetime of casually answering the intellectual content in all conversations; to believe in the necessity and rightness of accepting with understanding the full expression of all feeling, which is so contrary to the admonitions of our forefathers who cry "Control!"; and to change our set patterns of moralizing and judging each human action and feeling by some arbitrary standard that we, in our Jehovah role, consider only "right" behavior. Is it worth the struggle? Is it really necessary? In looking at my own reactions to the directive techniques of a specialist who has spent a quarter of a lifetime preparing herself to handle personalities, there can be no other answer but a hearty "Aye."

Therapeutic specialists know far more than does a mere layman about adjustment patterns that develop and how that development occurs, but no one but the individual concerned has been through the intricate pattern of experience that formulated his personality, and it is he who has to go through the disruptive experience of reorganizing that personality. Many ways of helping this process have been found, ranging in length of time from psychoanalysis, which may take years of daily contacts, to nondirective therapy, which takes probably a maximum of six months of weekly interviews, with all degrees of variation in methods in between. Evaluation of the success of these methods is difficult since we are dealing with personalities, and the forces that work for and against change cannot be put on a balance sheet and measured in figures. There is also no satisfactory method of balancing the efficacy of therapeutic methods at various depths of disturbance. Though psychiatrists cry "Hands off!" to therapeutic counselors who meddle with deep neuroses, the fact remains that nondirective therapy has made it possible for extreme neurotics to take their place in society in a way acceptable to society and to themselves in far less time than have most other therapeutic methods. So, to leave the realm of polysyllabic intellectualization, may I present my reactions to some of the directive techniques I have had "used on me" in the course of therapy and theorize that perhaps readjustment might have taken place more quickly if nondirective techniques had been used completely—or at least more extensively.

In the early days of therapy, when I went to a psychiatrist because I could no longer deny the inevitability of having to leave my wife and was completely incapable of facing all this action would mean, therapeutic interviews consisted of patient-centered release of feeling, a frantic search for some other solution, and preparation to face the



result. This method continued later to a larger extent, with interpretations, intellectual information, necessary direct help in environmental manipulation, and other psychotherapeutic techniques brought into the basic patient-centered relationship in a manner in which, in retrospect, I followed my own course of readjustment. This was so hampered by circumstance that I doubt if it could have proceeded much faster. Perhaps pure nondirective therapy might have sped progress at this stage, but the precarious neurotic balance that I had developed in my marriage was so completely shaken and so many practical complications appeared afterward that it is difficult to judge this stage of therapy and say what pure nondirective techniques might have accomplished.

It was last winter, when I came to a standstill, that the doctor took matters into her own hands and stated that it would now be necessary to use different techniques, exploring by use of free association my childhood recollections, dreams, fantasies, etc., and to dig down to the basic difficulty with Freudian techniques. This method is often very productive, and in my case it might have been more effective if combined with patient-centered therapy on occasions when I had something on my mind that I felt I could develop and work out in my own way.

The first reaction to the doctor's assumption of responsibility was one of relief. I knew I had to go on but could not face it, and it was a relief to hand over the responsibility, which I had previously considered much more a two-way proposition. This certainly increased my dependency on her and made the struggle even harder when I came to realize that actually I had to do a great deal completely alone to prepare myself for the planned interviews and that she did not have the solution all tied up in a pretty bundle. Once the therapeutic procedure was begun, I had the feeling each time I left an interview that I was either patted on the back with a "good boy" or sent away with a "tch-tch, naughty boy," depending on how well I had followed along with the next step of the procedure. It seems to me that all this feeling cannot be the best way to develop toward maturity—I would feel she was right—"She must be because she knows, and there must be something wrong with me since I cannot do what she wants." Often I would run to someone to whom I could talk about the interview in an effort to find out what the doctor was after, or run home in a terrific state of resentment and feeling of being torn to pieces against my will. This was so much worse because intellectually much of the time I knew what she was after and was unable to give it to her, which made me feel I was being uncooperative—and a "bad boy." Surely the creation of this feeling of being a child who has to do as he is told or be punished cannot be the best way to help an individual become independent.

In trying to work on this feeling with the doctor, I brought it up at the beginning of one interview. It was accepted and pointed out as a pattern that had been going on for some time and then dropped and the "plan" pushed with no result. This often happened when there was some such area I wanted to explore. When a plan is undertaken it seems to me that it should be kept completely flexible and open to any problems a patient considers predominant. Another technique which resulted in more resentment and resistance came up when I did finally have a chance to explore this feeling of dependency, but before I had a chance to work it through the doctor tried to bring in the positive element with, "You sound like a little boy," and "Do you want to remain one?" This involved a long argument about my answer, a very confused attempt to get on the same track, and more lecturing and questioning, and ended with my remarking at the end of the interview, "I don't understand what this has to do with my terrific drive for independence." It seems that this was what she had been trying to get at, but I had been so blocked I could not see it but had gone on at my own rate to the same conclusion. What good does it do to push and pull? By exploring on one's own one can reach something, but if the therapist feels he has

to give one all the answers it just makes it that much harder and sometimes completely blocks any satisfactory conclusion because of the resentment of the therapist's refusal to accept the negative attitude expressed. It helps to recognize ambivalence but not to push the positive when one is still wrapped up in the negative. It is often easy in such a situation to take refuge in the intellectual, leaving the emotional hanging and unexplored, and not understood.

When interpretation is considered necessary in a planned interview, as was the case here, and the therapist is watching the clock and wants to get his sermon in, the patient does not have a chance to fully explore his feelings. Such exploring seems to me to be a more important use of the time—if the therapist has any faith in the patient. This also seems to be an excellent example of a foolish question given a stock, intellectual answer that forces one from the emotional into the intellectual. The importance of facing problems emotionally is, of course, stressed, but if the therapist maintains his prerogative of jumping from the emotional to the intellectual in interpretation, it seems that, again, the patient is forced to toss back and forth in a pattern that does not follow his drive to work out a solution or to leave it when a temporary block is reached. It is satisfying to me to have the intellectual interpretation, sometimes even before it can be accepted—but it should be given clearly and concisely after the problem has been worked through emotionally. The therapist was quick to reprimand me for an intellectualized answer, but less intellectualization on the part of the therapist might help to create an atmosphere in which the problem can be worked through emotionally.

Another technique, which is actually more planning and prearranging of steps, is for the doctor to seize upon a casual remark at the beginning of an interview as a possible point of departure toward a desired goal, without deciding first whether or not this is actually an area that is ready to be explored. What good does it do, other than presenting the possibility of an area to be investigated, to push something that draws an absolute blank in the patient? It may be that the doctor knows best what should be done, but this procedure is useless unless the patient knows and accepts the solution. Permit, or perhaps even force, the patient to take the lead. The doctor's association of ideas may not be the same as the patient's.

Encouragement is another technique that seems to halt exploration in an area where excessive negative reaction from some shock might later give way to a self-realization of the pattern of reactions and an objective picture of the pros and cons of the situation. For example, instead of letting me explore my own reaction to losing my job, the doctor greeted me with a long, objective, intellectual dissertation on my accomplishments, and on the impossibility of my expecting to get along in a militaristic regime when I refused to compromise my own standards and completely follow conventional techniques. This was accepted enough to pull me through—but doesn't this type of treatment ask for more dependence? Doesn't it force one to go running for a pat on the back instead of looking for strength within oneself to face shocks, then balance them objectively after one has worked through the emotional impact? Couldn't the full expression of the reaction to a shock of this kind lead to some genuine insight and growth? Moreover, practicing such tactics the therapist is likely to present a picture of the patient which is not necessarily the patient's, and in the setup of judge and superior person versus manipulated child, the child cannot help but think again, "He knows best, he knows me better than I do." But does he? There's a big difference between *knowing* one has done the best he can and *feeling* he has, and when he is forced into an intellectual analysis of his problem, it does not help the way he feels. There are times when encouragement—concise, objective pointing out of improvement

—can help when life is completely black, but such a circumstance would be one in which anyone would probably compromise techniques to this extent.

To sum it all up, it would seem that when a planned course of therapeutic treatment, with the feeling of a mutual working toward a livable adjustment, is passed over for the standard relationship of doctor-patient, authority-subordinate, father-child, mentor-student, judge-criminal, teacher-pupil, God-man, the growth forces of the individual are hampered. Instead of development toward a position in which the individual has autonomy and is self-directed, there is regression to childhood and dependency, in which the patient loses what small amount of belief he may have had in himself and in his ability to face life on an adult level. It presents a terrific conflict between the desire to be independent, self-directed, and autonomous and the desire to lean on someone who is wiser and can make decisions which are certain to be the right ones. It takes away any feeling of ability to be self-directed, and the alternate feelings of rejection and acceptance make one feel that it is wrong to do anything that is not approved by the sire and that one's own feelings and beliefs cannot be depended on. Perhaps much can be obtained from such a relationship, but it prevents progress toward independence and increases the awful sensations experienced by an adult who feels he has not been able to grow beyond adolescence in the normal course of development. It is difficult to be an adult intellectually, but an adolescent emotionally—to be controlled by reactions that are not in keeping with everything one knows is a living hell. It isn't a question of knowledge but of how to break down the pattern of emotion and the consequent behavior that cries maladjustment. How can it best be done? Not by enforced entrance into areas that hurt and cannot be faced. This merely builds up resistance to the point of explosion. Would it not be much easier on the patient and still possible in a permissive atmosphere, with understanding and belief in the individual and clarification of the maze of complicated feelings? Stop forcing into areas that no one has a right to enter until the door is opened freely, and let it open gradually—or rather, let the person most concerned struggle through it step by step. This, to me, would seem to be the better way.

## APPENDIX 22 *Typescript of a Counseling Session*

COUNSELOR: Hi, there. Come on in and sit down. . . . Do you mind waiting until I sign this letter?

CLIENT: No, go right ahead . . . I know I'm a bit early. You know, I hate writing letters. You know, I'm getting worried about my writing . . . it's quite illegible! Pretty soon I'll be able to qualify as a businessman! (*Pause*) . . . You know, these nights are getting me down—I feel more and more the need for getting away. I was mad at you last week—you did not get provoked about my comment about Brownville.

COUNSELOR: You mean you wanted me to defend Brownville's lake?

CLIENT: I don't know, I wanted some reaction—but it just never cooked. (*Long pause*) . . . I am lost for a topic. I don't seem to have any interest or anything. (*Pause*) . . . I think it's the nights. I have no desire to think. I just . . . well, I have no desire . . . or something—oh well, of life and love. . . . (*Pause*)

COUNSELOR: Just can't seem to do anything, eh?

CLIENT: I know damn well there is more to it than my change of working hours. It's my resistance to it, more than it is the change. . . .

COUNSELOR: You mean your difficulty is the resistance rather than the actual job.

CLIENT: Yes, theoretically, at least. I get five to eight hours sleep at night. It should be enough. Yesterday I slept for six hours—but I was blocked . . . I . . . there is more to it than sleep.

COUNSELOR: It's more than the lack of sleep, eh?

CLIENT: Yeah. Seems to me I did not feel this bad when I was on the other time schedule. I have a desire to get out of this situation. (*Pause*) . . . I have a desire to do nothing—complete inertial (*Pause*) . . . The time I'm working now should be an ideal time to study. You can use four hours for study. Last year I used some of it. This year I have not been able to. Tried last night . . . but it did not jell. I looked forward to it, but I could not do it.

COUNSELOR: You found it hard to do anything?

CLIENT: Yeah. (*Pause*) . . . I have to push myself to put anything into those hours. I don't put much. I have a novel. I have been going at it for two weeks now. It's about 300 pages long. That is slow reading. It is interesting, too, but I don't want to read.

COUNSELOR: You mean you don't even want to read the novel?

CLIENT: No, even reading very much is upsetting—well, not upsetting, but difficult. Even writing a letter. The time is good for that—but, I don't know, I have been doing nothing! (*Long pause*) . . . But I don't know if I have been doing something even when I have the time.

COUNSELOR: You mean you find it hard to do anything, even when you have the time to do it?

CLIENT: Well, it's difficult. I have no drive any more except waiting for quitting time to come. Please God—quitting time come quickly!

COUNSELOR: Getting off the job is important?

CLIENT: Yeah, I never looked forward to quitting time so much before. . . .

COUNSELOR: The job is getting more unbearable. . . .



CLIENT: Yeah, I think that it's the time that is doing it . . . but . . . I may have been coming to that point. The job has no longer any glamour or interest.

COUNSELOR: You think, maybe, even if you weren't working at that time, you would still feel this way. . . .

CLIENT: Well, the time does have a lot to do with it. It makes it more intolerable.

(Pause) . . . I was trying to add up all my positive qualities for job getting—

I could not find any. That's not so good!

COUNSELOR: You couldn't find that you had any assets?

CLIENT: Well, for myself . . . (Pause) . . . I want you to say that I do have quite

a few . . . (Pause) . . . I don't know—I have my A.B. in psychology . . . that's

worthless. (Long pause) . . . I don't know, maybe I am in a depressed stage—

nothing is of any value.

COUNSELOR: Including yourself. . . .

CLIENT: Yeah—I know damn well that it's not true, but I don't want to believe that.

COUNSELOR: That you are worth something, you mean. . . .

CLIENT: Yes—I just don't feel worthy of myself. That is a degrading and debasing

situation. (Long pause) . . . I don't like it, but that seems to be natural—well,

to fit in.

COUNSELOR: You mean it seems to be reasonable for you to feel that way?

CLIENT: Well, I can't answer it—I know I have assets, but I can't find them. I should

have some, but the way I have been summing this up, I have nothing.

COUNSELOR: M'hmmn.

CLIENT: I suppose I can see it, yet actually it does not seem to be there. I know I have

positive attributes—I can see them—but then, I can't see them. It's like knowing

you have a quarter and then not being able to—well—like finding yourself out in

a desert. . . .

COUNSELOR: Like having some money—but there is nowhere to spend it.

CLIENT: Or at least it's feeling you're out and . . . (Long pause) . . . I guess the

longer I wander around the luster I get. If I don't find something . . . (Pause)

. . . I've got to find something—it's going too far. I would work at something

if it could be handed to me. (Pause) . . . I object to that, but I want it handed

to me.

COUNSELOR: You mean you want somebody to hand something to you even though

you don't like it. . . .

CLIENT: I want someone to come to me. I know you have a quarter and I offer you

this material. I want the jobs to come to me, yet when the jobs do come. . . .

(Pause) . . . I do have an offer, but I can't take it.

COUNSELOR: You mean you have a job opportunity but you can't take it. . . .

CLIENT: Yes—well—I don't like the way you put it—I don't like the "you can't take

it." It's probably true, but it hurt. I don't want it handed to me, because then it's

not mine—it's not acceptable to my own way of thinking. But then, I do want

it handed to me—is that what you said?

COUNSELOR: And you can't accept it. . . .

CLIENT: And I do wish someone would hand it to me—Isn't that a screwy ambivalent

feeling?

COUNSELOR: H'mmmn.

CLIENT: When something is handed to me it just isn't earned—it isn't.

COUNSELOR: You find it—

CLIENT: I don't know; that's where I am all mixed up because it's almost my feeling

but I don't like to believe that it is my feeling. It's one of those points in which . . .

(Pause) . . . I don't know . . . one of the points that I am mixed up about. . . .

(Pause) . . . I know what I want and how I feel about what I want, but they are opposed to each other. I want some candy, but I know that it will make me sick. . . .

COUNSELOR: So you can't take it. . . .

CLIENT: Yes, but I still want it. I want a good job, but if someone—well—the good job would make me sick. I just can't take it! (Pause) . . . That doesn't sound like what I wanted to say. Yet, when I made that analogy it sounded right, but—

COUNSELOR: It sounds right and yet you can't accept it. . . .

CLIENT: Yes, that's the part I don't like. It works out nicely, but I don't like to think that I can't make a good job work. I suppose I have fears that I won't do it right.

COUNSELOR: You are afraid that you might not be successful.

CLIENT: Yes—that I will accept. I would also like a job. You know, I hate to get dressed up, but I want a job where I will have to get dressed up. I go around looking like a mess, and I don't like to. Isn't that beautifully ambivalent?

COUNSELOR: So you want a job where you will have to be dressed up?

CLIENT: Yes, I suppose so. . . . C'mon.

COUNSELOR: You don't like that. . . .

CLIENT: Well, I don't like the way you said it, but it is right. But, you have stripped it down to a fact.

COUNSELOR: Uh-huh. . . .

CLIENT: Yes, I can say lots of things, but it seems that when somebody else says them, I feel unhappy, and yet they are the way I feel.

COUNSELOR: So you find it hard when somebody expresses the way you feel?

CLIENT: Yes . . . m'hmn . . . definitely, it's uncomfortable to hear someone else express feelings like that, even though they are your own feelings.

COUNSELOR: You mean you have these feelings that you don't want to accept?

CLIENT: Yes, but I will fight like hell. Knowing them makes me unhappy. When someone else comes out with an idea of mine, I become resentful toward him—"that was my baby"—my idea. (Pause) . . . So . . . (Pause) . . . That brings us up to a point where we were talking about a couple of weeks ago . . . about interpretation versus reflection. How would I feel if someone was interpreting. Here, I can't even accept the reflections of feeling—it makes me uncomfortable—but what can I do about it?—Do I accept—or deny—or fight against them? (Pause) . . . It's an intellectualizing sort of thing. My intellect says accept, but my emotions say you had better not.

COUNSELOR: So emotionally you can't take what intellectually you know. . . .

CLIENT: Yes—you know, I have come to a beautiful point in resistance. I resist in here and everywhere else. Whether it's being extended from the out on in, I don't know. Analysis would probably say it's from the in on out. I am feeling things I don't want to feel, and the whole situation is uncomfortable. I just don't know—it seems to be a point where you must make some decision and I am rebelling against it. I look toward this hour, but with more apprehension. I haven't yet come to the point where I have slept through the hour, but I did wake up later today. It's coming to the point where I have been trying to find ways of expressing hostility to the hour. It's more threatening.

COUNSELOR: The feeling of hostility is becoming more intense. . . .

CLIENT: Yes, it's hard to see it the way it is—but it seems that it's the inside coming outward—I feel our own relationship is strange.

COUNSELOR: You feel a threat. . . .

CLIENT: Yes. . . . It's funny the way it works. I came in eagerly for therapy but when the time comes I want to start again at the beginning rather than with the imme-

diate thing. Probably my cursing Brownville is cursing you. Brownville is your Brownville—

COUNSELOR: I see . . . identification, eh?

CLIENT: Yes, maybe—too easy. I am fighting like mad to keep my *status quo*, but it's being torn away.

COUNSELOR: It's becoming more unacceptable. . . .

CLIENT: Yes—not acceptable at all any more. My *status quo* is untenable—now . . . it's not a happy situation. All the facts are pushing and tearing and pulling, instead of lying down quietly. I am not satisfied with myself—not at all. Months ago I was dissatisfied, but I would not admit it. I had a snug position, and to hell with the world. . . . But it isn't snug now . . . it's a bitch of a position. The security of my job is no longer security—it's a threat.

COUNSELOR: It's become a threat now—

CLIENT: Yes—Yeah. . . . (Pause) . . . I don't know why I said that . . . it's true it's a threat. More and more my employment situation has changed. I am no longer satisfied. How do I mean that anyway? . . . H'mn. . . . That's peculiar, and it's true too.

COUNSELOR: You mean that the job situation has sort of reversed itself. . . .

CLIENT: Yeah, it's made me want to get out of it—to start looking around for what's available. I used to think about it, but now it's more intimate. (Long pause) . . . I wonder what made me say that. . . . (Long pause). . . .

COUNSELOR: About the job, you mean?

CLIENT: Yes. Before, it was a secure little place, where I could not be touched. It still is theoretically the same place and I could be in it for the next 55 years. I don't know. . . . (Long pause) . . . My attitudes may have changed so much that things are changed.

COUNSELOR: You feel there are changes. . . .

CLIENT: Yes, I think I have unconsciously seen the change in my attitude. I am different toward my job—toward the people I work with. I used to think they were sacred. Now I don't feel that way. I feel like an outsider. Originally they could do no wrong, but now they are just humans. For a long time my ivory tower has been coming down, but I don't want to see it or believe it. Off and on I have been saying it would be nice if I could get out—now I have to get out. (Pause) . . . I want to leave lots of old attitudes behind. (Long pause) . . . I never thought I would want to desire to be like a child behind. (Pause) . . . I thought I wasted two do that. All my life I have fought against growing up. I thought I wasted two years in the Army—and I would stay the same, or, I did stay the same, all my life.

COUNSELOR: And now you feel more that you want to grow up. . . .

CLIENT: Yes—I hate to lose it, but it's going . . . it's going! I don't know how, but it's going! (Long pause)

COUNSELOR: Well, I see that our time is up . . . This might be a good time to cut it off for now, eh?

CLIENT: Same time next week?

COUNSELOR: Okay. . . .

CLIENT: That's fine . . . good-by.

## APPENDIX 23 *Form Used in Course Evaluation*

### BOSTON UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

#### EVALUATION OF THE COURSE "PRINCIPLES OF GUIDANCE"

1. The course was of (Much value) (Some value) (Little or no value)
2. The objectives that I had set before the course were achieved (To a great extent)  
(To some extent) (To little or no extent)
3. I would like to have future courses of this nature taught in this way (Yes) (No)
4. The things that I liked the most about the course were
  
5. The things that I disliked about the course were



## APPENDIX 24 *Form Used in Instructor Evaluation*

### NEW YORK UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

#### Department of Guidance and Personnel Administration

##### *To the Student:*

We are trying continually in this department to improve the quality of instruction. One way of doing this is to find out what you like about present courses, and how you think they may be improved.

This is a delicate matter. It is not pleasant for a teacher to be put on the spot, to reverse the usual procedure in which the teacher judges the student by letting the student judge the teacher. But it is the only way we know to protect both the teacher and the student. Without it, the teacher may be judged unfairly by administrative officers who have heard complaints from one or two dissatisfied students, or future students may suffer because administrative officers are unaware of student reaction. Hence this form.

Your instructor has indicated his willingness to have you fill this in without signing your name. The results will be tabulated and given to the chairman of the department. The original papers will be sent to your instructor after your grade for this course has been reported to the Recording Office.

If for any reason you prefer not to answer, please return the blank unmarked, or if you wish you may write below your reasons for not answering.

Both your instructor and the department want to know how you feel about what we are trying to do for you. Your honest comments may help us all to do a better job for you and for other students in the future. If you are willing, please answer the questions on the other side of this sheet. Do not put your name on the paper.

ROBERT HOPPOCK, Chairman  
Department of Guidance and  
Personnel Administration

Please indicate your reaction to this course in the spaces provided below. Do not put your name on the paper.

Course # \_\_\_\_\_ Instructor \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

In comparison with the average of all the other college and university courses that you have taken at New York University and elsewhere, has this course been:

- |                        |                           |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| _____ 1. More useful   | _____ 4. More interesting |
| _____ 2. About average | _____ 5. About average    |
| _____ 3. Less useful   | _____ 6. Less interesting |

If you were considering whether or not to enroll for another course taught by the same instructor, would the fact that he was teaching it be:

- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. An added reason for taking it  
\_\_\_\_\_ 8. Immaterial  
\_\_\_\_\_ 9. An added reason for not taking it

Are you a candidate for a degree in the Department of Guidance and Personnel Administration at N.Y.U.?

- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Yes  
\_\_\_\_\_ 11. No  
12. What did you like best about this course?  
13. How do you think it could be improved?

## APPENDIX 25    *Typescript of a Group Discussion on Guidance*

ARMEN: Will you excuse me for a few minutes, Dr. Smith? You just take over, okay?  
(*Dr. Armen leaves*)

SMITH: I think there is a role for the teachers to play in working with children, yes; but I think so only as long as the teacher keeps her hands off certain things. I think that perhaps the training of the teacher should be training in limitation.

JOHNSTON: How large a group—that is, for example, a school with a population of, let's say, one thousand—would that be too many for one trained individual to take care of? Of course, what I'm trying to get at is—approximately how many? Just say an average community.

SMITH: I think perhaps if you imported one person to your community and began to see how busy he could be, your community might be sold on the need for importing more people. You want to know how many one psychologist could possibly take care of. Let's just say an average community—a school community of one thousand kids. The chances are that one worker isn't enough. But at least that one worker could ensure some supervision, and at least there could be a screening off of the really sick kids for him to work with.

BERNSEN: In this community deal that you mentioned, how would this work? Would it apply to children other than those in school?

SMITH: If it were a community deal, it could be open even to adults. I think you would possibly have to decide whether it was going to be part of your school system. Now I want to admit that a lot of people who are specialists are quite defensive about their status. But I would like to throw in here, too, that the teacher is apt to be defensive about that kind of individual.

JOHNSTON: I think we're all pretty much in agreement that we need this type of trained helper. I don't believe there is any doubt of that. I know in my own situation there isn't a class in which there aren't several people who very definitely need help.

SMITH: I know, for example—probably I am going against what Dr. Armen says here, but he invited me with full knowledge that something might happen—but I just don't happen to agree with his conception of every teacher being a counselor. It is something like Huey Long's idea of every man a king. Perhaps that is not a good analogy. If you are going to be a counselor, and especially if you are going to do work which involves helping people with problems concerned with personal relationships, I think you must pay the price and have training for it. I will state here—and I realize it won't be too popular—but, by gosh, you have to pay the price and have training up to the doctoral level.

KRAMER: In other words, if you don't have that training, you'd better not try to do the job.

SMITH: Yes.

KRAMER: Hands off, then.

SMITH: Yes.

BLOOD: It seems to me like the man who sees an accident but isn't really concerned. Like seeing a man with his leg cut off, but we won't touch him because we aren't doctors.

SMITH: Yes, yes.

BLOOD: In the meantime he is likely to bleed to death. But if I know something about first aid, I might be able to keep him alive until something can be done.

SMITH: Yes. I think, however, that if you go back to the writings of the social workers you will find a growing conception that the things you feel you can't handle are best left alone. You might do more harm than good. There might be some first-aid practices we could have along the way, but that doesn't mean working with a guide toward personality reorganization.

STATHE: Isn't it the conception of the state of Washington that guidance people are supposed to be doing that work?

SMITH: They're supposed to be, but I think, from a very intimate knowledge—at least from what they tell me about these conferences and having been in some school systems—that the job isn't being done. As I say, I know I am going to be unpopular. But it's a kind of cathartic to come and say this is what I think.

JOHNSTON: I think there is a great deal of truth there. I know in our own situation we had a fellow who tried to do a lot for the kids. But I can't say that he was any too successful. Of course, I really wouldn't know myself; I'm not sufficiently trained to know what he could have done.

SMITH: I imagine your teachers are darn quick to spot a guy who comes in, supposedly as a guidance specialist. I don't even like the term guidance, by the way, it smacks too much of divine guidance. He comes in as a specialist, and I'll wager every one of you is equipped to know he isn't doing the job by the results he gets. If you are going to get a real person, it is going to demand a battle with your school board. Just as you want to pay the price for good physical health, we have to face the problem of being willing to pay the price for good mental health.

KRAMER: You would say that, as teachers, we have no ethical right to let the principal shove off a guidance job on us when we are not prepared to do it.

SMITH: Yes, that's right.

KRAMER: So I should have told my principal, "No, I won't attempt to be a counselor to these junior girls next year. Find somebody else." But I happen to think that in that school I could do a better job than most of the other teachers there.

SMITH: How can you tell you could? Have you ever had any carefully supervised work?

KRAMER: No, I haven't. You say I should turn down that assignment.

SMITH: Ethically, I think so.

KRAMER: Knowing that I had been given this assignment, I have taken two courses in guidance. That is not enough work?

SMITH: No, I don't think so.

KRAMER: Who's going to do the job if I turn it down and if every other teacher turns it down?

SMITH: I think possibly it would bring more clearly to your principal's mind the need for getting somebody to do that job. That would be my view.

LALLY: Is the objection reached so far financial?

SMITH: I think that it is largely, isn't it?

BENSON: I understand the amount a school receives for guidance is negligible.

SMITH: Yes, it is not very much.

BENSON: It wouldn't even begin to pay a specialist?

SMITH: No.

BERNSEN: Approximately what salary would this specialist require?

SMITH: It's going to have to be up there. I'd say a minimum for a trained person of between five and six thousand.

BERNSEN: Do you feel that the individual school should work toward this or is it state-wide—has it started in the state already?

SMITH: Well, there's a movement toward the licensing of psychologists in the state. But how far that is going to get I don't know. There's a certain amount of missionary work that needs to be done before it will be finished. I think you, as teachers, would feel more comfortable in terms of doing things that you are so excellently trained to do and to work with somebody who is trained to do something a little bit different. You know . . .

BERNSEN: But you don't think there is any solution to the problem of further teacher training of psychologists in our colleges?

SMITH: I don't happen to agree with Dr. Armen on this point. What we are apt to have is—well, as I say, I'm leaving here today—we're apt to have a smattering of ignorance. I really think so. That's a profound conviction.

BLOOD: It seems to me that you're saying that you can't develop proper methods for human relations in someone who isn't going on to his doctorate. That doesn't seem to be correct to me. It seems as if everyone can at least improve his chances of . . .

SMITH: Yes . . .

BLOOD: . . . having better human relationships with the people he is working with.

SMITH: Well, I would agree if you call it working toward more effective human relationships. That is one thing, but diagnosis and the treatment of the sick person is something else again.

STATHE: Do you feel that every person who takes this training and becomes a doctor of psychology is really trained to handle children?

SMITH: I think that is something we have to work toward pretty carefully before we hire the person. We should investigate him pretty carefully. If we are not careful in defining our standards, then we are going to be in trouble. We can buy whatever is floating around. We don't want to buy the label, we want to buy the person and the training and the experience.

STATHE: Not every psychologist is capable of handling a child, is he?

SMITH: I don't know. I think if he has come through an adequate training program he has a better chance of it. He has been through a lot of screening as he has been trained and especially as he has reached the supervised experience stage.

KRAMER: In other words, there is no differentiation between diagnosis and treatment and guidance. Is that it?

SMITH: As I say, I think guidance has become a kind of slop jar. I think at least when we speak of the trained psychology worker we have a clearer focus on the kind of individual we are buying for our school system. (*Dr. Armen reenters the classroom*) I have just been disagreeing with you, Dr. Armen. You took that risk when you let me come in here.

ARMEN: I'm sorry I have been delayed. Can you stick around, Dr. Smith? For a while, anyway?

SMITH: Probably I'd better shove off. I could come back later on. I have a little conference now.

ARMEN: Do you mean you can return later on in this period or this hour?

SMITH: Whatever you say. I'll leave that up to you.

ARMEN: Suppose you run through that conference as quickly as you can, and we'll have at least a few minutes to check our scores. (*Dr. Smith leaves*)

ARMEN: Well—what have I missed? (*Group laughs*)

WHELAN: Could we enlist questions from the floor next time? (*Group laughs*) I disagree with Dr. Smith very strenuously.



ARMEN: Could we keep it on this basis first? Let me get oriented as to what's been happening.

WHEELER: Who is he?

ARMEN: Dr. Smith is the head of the Student Counseling Center.

KRAMER: He says that unless you are a trained psychologist, you have no business counseling kids. Unless you have a doctorate, that is.

JOHNSTON: That is, figuring out the students' reasons for being as they are—the causes for their behavior.

STATHE: In other words, leave them alone.

ARMEN: You mean as far as the teacher is concerned. . . .

JOHNSTON: That's right.

BERNSEN: He says that he doesn't feel it is fair to ask a man who is a Ph.D., which this counselor should be—or above—to spend time just being a teacher.

LALLY: He doesn't feel that the counselor particularly needs a teaching background before he goes into guidance.

ARMEN: You mean that a school counselor should be one who doesn't have to have an understanding of teaching? (*Group agreement*)

LALLY: That if he did put in that number of years of training for his line of work, he should have some background of knowledge.

JOHNSTON: That it would be lowering to expect him to . . .

KRAMER: Ethically, you have no right to accept any assignments that involve counseling kids.

JOHNSTON: Or being a class adviser, or . . . (*Group laughs*)

JOHNSTON: Or being boys' adviser.

BLOOD: After all, where can you draw the line, since you start going right back to the problems of the classrooms? You have to direct to assist.

ARMEN: Uh-huh.

BLOOD: Where you are drawing the line is where we should come in.

ARMEN: Excuse me. I'm not oriented yet. (*Laughs*) I would like to get some of the ideas here—and find out what the score is.

BERNSEN: Dr. Smith maintains that only a licensed, trained psychologist or one licensed by the state should do the work as a guidance person for the schools.

JOHNSTON: One per school, or roughly one per thousand.

BERNSEN: Salary of five thousand to six thousand dollars per year, probably. And what I am wondering is what would be the effect on these children in a local situation where they wait for a specialist to come in from somewhere else?

KRAMER: Mr. Blood brought up a very good analogy with first aid. We see somebody in an accident, and while we don't try to treat them we can administer first aid.

ARMEN: You mean he felt that was going too far?

KRAMER: Well, from a physical standpoint, he would recognize it, but not as far as the . . .

STATHE: . . . mental . . .

KRAMER: . . . as far as the mental was concerned.

LALLY: He felt it was better to wait for quality rather than to get at more people now—to get at them with more highly specialized persons.

BLOOD: It seems that we might be clumsy in restructuring the personality and put an arm where a leg should be.

ARMEN: If we try to do anything at all, we are going to make more a hash of it. Is that it? (*General agreement*)

STATHE: That's it.

JOHNSTON: That seems to be it.

STATHE: He said hands off, and that seems to be his policy.

BENSON: Yes, that's right.

STATHE: A hands-off policy.

BERNSEN: Miss Kramer brought out the fact that she has been asked to take a job as a counselor this fall and that she had taken a couple of guidance courses in view of that and she asked him if she shouldn't have done that. She asked "What if every teacher turns it down?" and he said, "That would bring it more into the minds of the administration that trained people in this field are needed and let them work as they may for the time being until they get someone else."

STATHE: My thought on this—when we say trained psychologist, well, we had guidance people, and I thought they were part of the solution to the problem, but you say trained psychologist. Now just where would you go about getting a trained psychologist? You can't do it overnight.

BERNSEN: He also brought out an interesting point there, too, that he thought teachers should be broad-minded enough to accept these trained psychologists when they come in, and I think there's a feeling . . .

STATHE: I think they will.

BERNSEN: . . . there's a feeling . . .

MORAN: Conversely, I think the psychologists should be broad-minded enough to accept the teachers.

BLOOD: Yes, he . . .

MORAN: He is plugging for pure psychology at a higher level than you are getting.

JOHNSTON: You are getting them.

MORAN: You must have an educationally minded psychologist in the school system. If he doesn't know any of the educational principles . . .

BERNSEN: We asked him about the in-service training, too, for this trained person to meet with teachers, and he brought out the point about the teacher of the children knowing what child to send to him, and he didn't seem to think too favorably of that, did he?

JOHNSTON: He figured that one could get by with testing the entire group.

STATHE: And I don't think that would be possible.

ARMEN: Well—the teacher shouldn't even refer kids, you mean?

KRAMER: No, he seemed to think that teachers should just identify problem children.

BERNSEN: He didn't work it into teacher in-service training.

KRAMER: No, he wouldn't do that.

ARMEN: You mean there wouldn't be any in-service sort of thing that we have been talking of—say, studying problem cases or case studies—things of that nature?

BERNSEN: I asked him that—to give the teacher a better insight into what he was doing.

ARMEN: Yes.

LALLY: He thought that the teachers should be trained for their position, but that they should stay more in their line of work, and they could do a better job, he thought, if they weren't bothered by problems of this sort.

ARMEN: That teaching was their business and that—well, in other words—teaching and guidance are two definitely different things.

BLOOD: It seems to me that as a psychologist he seems to have the idea that the mental processes take place in a vacuum, that the child just thinks without having any contact with other people who affect his thinking, that he is a pure psychological problem and has nothing to do with the social environment around him.

ARMEN: You mean that a psychological problem is definitely oriented that way, and it's either that or nothing at all.

BLOOD: That's right. It's either that or nothing at all.

ARMEN: Well . . .

KRAMER: He said the idea of every teacher a guidance worker is like the idea of every man a king.

BLOOD: He also said he thought that was rather an extreme comparison.

ARMEN: What, every . . . ?

BLOOD: Every teacher a guidance worker, every man a king.

ARMEN: It wasn't the same thing?

BLOOD: Well, he tempered it a little.

ARMEN: Uh-huh, that is very interesting.

STATHE: My viewpoint still is—and I asked him this—that I just can't see how a trained psychologist could handle a small child. I think a trained psychologist should have a lot of experience with children in order to do anything with them. He thinks that the supervision which the psychologist is given in his training will equip him for any age child.

BLOOD: Supervised training.

STATHE: Yes, his supervised training will do it.

ARMEN: And that will help him to know more about children than a teacher who is on the job all the time?

WHEELER: Is it time to ask a question?

ARMEN: Surely.

WHEELER: What I want to know is, if you have about three years of graduate work in guidance, do you know a heck of a lot less than you would if you had your Ph.D.? I know some of these guidance workers who don't have their doctorate but do have a few years of graduate work. Writing that thesis isn't going to improve their knowledge so much. But I do think that if they are doing guidance work they will no doubt learn something more. Dr. Smith wanted to make that Ph.D. the dividing point.

ARMEN: What you are saying, Mr. Wheeler, is that although you will find there are guidance workers who do not have a Ph.D. in clinical psychology, still from the point of view of actual work with individuals, with work and training, they will have more in the way of professional training.

WHEELER: They will have more in the way of knowledge than requirements for a Ph.D. Somebody asked him a question on that and he said the psychologist must absolutely have the Ph.D.

GROUP: Or above.

CARLSON: I don't think he meant that the Ph.D. was absolutely necessary. What he was trying to get at was the standards to be met before the psychologist is licensed, and that the chances are he couldn't possibly meet these standards and be licensed until he had training through the Ph.D.

ARMEN: He couldn't become eligible for a license until he had at least the Ph.D.

KRAMER: Well, that was the impression.

WHEELER: Which is quite similar to our teaching requirements, where we require a fifth year but don't require a master's degree. They are two different things.

ARMEN: Yes. Well, you are saying that, just the same as with the master's degree or the Ph.D., it isn't the degree itself that is important but what your actual training is, eh?

WHELAN: Well, I don't think Dr. Smith or the counseling consultant fits the description of that degree of sophistication. We don't know what good counseling is yet, let alone who is a good counselor. You could say that any Counselor A, given factors B,C,D and Student F, will come out with such and such a situation. Dr. Smith went on to say, or to indicate, that we know what good counseling is. And I don't

think we do. There's been no validation made yet that will hold. So how, if we don't know what good counseling is, can you say that one is not a good counselor, or that a teacher isn't a good counselor?

ARMEN: Uh-huh. Well, in other words, Mr. Whelan, you are saying that he can scarcely criticize the teacher as a counselor when we are still at the infant stage of research and don't know what good or poor counseling is.

WHELAN: How do we know psychologically oriented people are doing good counseling?

ARMEN: Uh-huh.

WHELAN: We don't know that a Ph.D. will do it.

ARMEN: We don't have too much research to indicate whether this is the best way or this is the worst way. . . .

WHELAN: Still, by a clinical approach, we know we're doing right—well, we know it. That's all there is.

WEBB: One thing has been perplexing me; that is, we have been taking the sociologist's point of view on this business of counseling and guidance. I happen to be better acquainted with that point of view. They study the group in order to discover the problems of the individual.

ARMEN: You are implying here, are you, that perhaps the Ph.D. people as well aren't sufficiently emphasizing the group in which we live?

WEBB: Here on the campus there is a counseling battle between psychology and sociology over this point of view and the education department is more closely tied to psychology than are the sociology people. I personally like the point of view of the sociologists. Now, if one man has his Ph.D. in sociology and another man has his Ph.D. in psychology, how do we know who is going to be the best counselor, when they are attacking the problem from different points of view?

ARMEN: Well, you mean you are really reinforcing Mr. Whelan's point of view. If you have the sociologist's point of view, then you go at it from this side, and if you have a Ph.D. in psychology you go at it from this side . . .

WHELAN: To extend the analogy to education, what is the difference between a psychology Ph.D. and an education Ph.D.? A man might be an educational man, but that doesn't necessarily mean he is not as good a counseling man as a psychology man.

ARMEN: Dr. Smith seemed to feel . . .

WHELAN: Psychology, per se.

GROUP: That's it.

WHEELER: I don't feel that we're as much in disagreement with Dr. Smith as we think we are, however. His worry seemed to lie in the teachers' doing harm in the section of directive counseling. That is, diagnosis and treatment is where the danger lies.

ARMEN: Did he say anything about using the nondirective approach?

BENSON: No, he didn't go into that.

WHEELER: He didn't use the terms "nondirective" and "directive."

LOVELL: He just said that teachers should stay out of the field of diagnosis and training problems. That was the field for the trained psychologist.

ARMEN: Yes.

LOVELL: I don't think he meant that we can't answer a student's question.

CARLSON: I couldn't help but wonder whether we didn't have a problem of semantics—his definition of counseling could very well be different from ours for the purpose of this class.

KRAMER: That's why I asked the question of him I did ask—because I thought that more or less defined what we think of as counseling.



BERNSEN: And his answer to that was definitely "Don't. Don't do counseling."

KRAMER: That's right.

LOVELL: He assumed you would be the counselor who diagnosed this one and treated that one. Instead you're just going to be the one who tells the students what classes to take or what clothes to wear. You aren't going to begin to diagnose or treat people.

WHELAN: Well, I thought he was trying to draw a very subtle differentiation between clinical counseling and guidance. But then he extended the Ph.D. requirement right down into guidance.

ARMEN: Well, you feel that he was saying that even at the guidance level the teacher is still ineffective. (*Group agreement*)

LOVELL: That she should definitely not undertake the job.

ARMEN: In Miss Kramer's case, then, it would in the long run be better that the students have no counselor rather than you, since you are not sufficiently trained.

KRAMER: That's right.

ARMEN: That's bolstering your ego, isn't it?

KRAMER: That was good. (*Group laughs*) But that was the reason I asked the question, because at first I thought he was making this very careful difference between counseling and clinical psychology. But then he just said "No, no counseling at all."

BLOOD: That brings up one of the major problems of higher education at all times. We have been so busy limiting fields that we have contained them to the stage where the psychologist doesn't understand the educator, the educator doesn't understand the sociologist, the sociologist doesn't understand the historian. We must have people come between the fields for a better understanding between them. Our problem is between education and psychology—and we could add another field, sociology.

ARMEN: We are all sitting in our own gardens and we don't know too much about what the other guy is thinking, eh. . . .

STATHE: I was going to ask him that, and. . . .

ARMEN: By the way, did you get the impression that Dr. Smith was going to come back? We only have a couple of minutes left. We might ask him one or two questions.

BENSON: There are all degrees of need for guidance and counseling. You've got everything from the girl mad at her boy friend to the frightened child.

ARMEN: Uh-huh.

BENSON: If you do have a trained psychologist, you will not be able to send him every youngster who is really disturbed.

ARMEN: If a girl is mad at her boy friend, she is to go to a psychologist, eh?

BENSON: That was what I was going to ask him. (*Dr. Smith enters*)

ARMEN: Here he comes now. Come in, Dr. Smith.

APPENDIX 26    *Form Used in Self-evaluation*

EVALUATION FORM

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Degree \_\_\_\_\_ Date of Graduation \_\_\_\_\_

*Specific Areas for Evaluation*

- 1. Assignments
  - 1. ....
  - 2. ....
  - 3. ....
  - 4. ....
  - 5. ....
  - 6. ....
  - 7. ....
- 2. Examination .....
- 3. Reading .....
- 4. Group participation .....
- 5. Attendance .....
- 6. Outside activities .....
- 7. General relations .....

*Categories for Evaluation*

KNOWLEDGE \_\_\_\_\_

SKILLS AND TECHNIQUES \_\_\_\_\_

ATTITUDINAL GROWTH \_\_\_\_\_

FINAL GRADE \_\_\_\_\_

**BOSTON UNIVERSITY  
DIVISION OF STUDENT HEALTH  
REPORT OF PHYSICAL EXAMINATION**

Date.....19.....

To THE DEAN (*Confidential*)

Student's Name.....School.....Class.....

Grade: A—Good, no physical or only minor defects found. No restrictions.

B—Fair, defects present which need attention. Restricted athletics and physical education.

C—Poor, serious physical defects present. No athletics. Limited physical activities.

D—Very poor, college work likely to affect health of the student or a menace to the public health of the institution.  
Exclusion from the University recommended.

Underweight.....	Acute disease of lungs:.....	RECOMMENDATIONS:
Overweight.....	Serious.....not serious.....	Restricted academic schedule.....
Weak or flat feet.....	Valvular heart disease.....	No intercollegiate athletics.....
Eyes: Contagious disease.....	Functional heart murmur.....	No intramural athletics.....
Color blind.....	Relaxed inguinal rings.....	No regular gymnasium.....
Blind, one eye.....	Hernia.....	No military science.....
Defective vision, needs refraction.....	Varicocele.....	Other.....
Ears: Chronic discharge.....	Others.....	.....
Hearing.....	.....	.....

Signed.....M. D.

# APPENDIX 28    *Report Form Used by Medical Office*

REPORT TO REGISTRAR			
LAST NAME (PRINT)	FIRST	MIDDLE	DEPT
Physical examination — Date:		Health Status	
Requirements completed —		Normal	
Requirements incomplete —		Abnormal	
		Restrictions	
Recheck following:			
DIRECTOR OF STUDENT HEALTH			



# APPENDIX 29 *Extra-class Interest Form* *Used in Residences*

## STEPHENS COLLEGE

### FIRST YEAR STUDENT

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Room No. \_\_\_\_\_  
 Roommate \_\_\_\_\_  
 Suitemates \_\_\_\_\_  
 Home City \_\_\_\_\_ State \_\_\_\_\_  
 Age \_\_\_\_\_ Birthday \_\_\_\_\_  
 Senior Sister \_\_\_\_\_  
 Admissions Counselor \_\_\_\_\_  
 Adviser \_\_\_\_\_  
 Religious preference \_\_\_\_\_  
 Class Standing \_\_\_\_\_  
 Course Major \_\_\_\_\_  
 Student Employment: Where? \_\_\_\_\_  
 Hours per week \_\_\_\_\_

Check those talents and skills which you would contribute to the hall program and parties:

#### MUSIC

What instrument?

\_\_\_\_\_ Tap  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Ballet or Toe  
 Voice \_\_\_\_\_ Modern (interpretive)

#### CREATIVE ABILITIES

\_\_\_\_\_ Skits  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Imitations  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Readings  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Mistress of Ceremonies  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Art

#### DANCE

#### LIST OTHER TALENTS OR SKILLS

\_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

Check those opportunities in the hall program in which you would like to share:

_____ Committees	_____ World Citizen-
_____ Etiquette	ship Organi-
_____ Health	zation
_____ Ideals	_____ Census Taker
_____ Meditations	_____ Discussion
_____ Personal Ap-	Groups
pearance	_____ Campus
_____ Publicity	Problems
_____ Scholarship	_____ National or
_____ Social	World Is-
_____ Stephens Rec-	sues
reation As-	_____ Date Hostess
sociation	_____ Desk Hostess
	_____ Fire Drill

Check the things you would like to have included in the hall social program other than the usual spreads, parties, picnics we would be certain to plan:

_____ Sings (own hall or	_____ Teas
with other halls)	_____ Bridge lessons
_____ Pajama parties	_____ Bridge tourna-
(dancing, food,	ments
singing)	_____ Roller skating
	_____ Mixers

Would you like to participate in any of the following sports?

Check:

_____ Volley-	_____ Basket-	_____ Softball
ball	ball	_____ Tennis
_____ Bowling	_____ Hockey	_____ Ping-pong
_____ Hiking	_____ Swimming	

Suggestions for the good of the hall \_\_\_\_\_

# APPENDIX 30 *Health Statement Used by Students*

## BOSTON UNIVERSITY

## **HEALTH STATEMENT**

This form must be filled out by applicant as part of the data for registration to Boston University, and returned to the Student Health Service, 84 Exeter Street. It is intended to furnish information, which will enable the college authorities to assist students in maintaining a high degree of efficiency by proper adjustment, as early as possible, to the mental and physical demands of University life.

### **WOMEN**

Name Miss \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
 Mrs. \_\_\_\_\_  
 Last First Middle  
 Home Address \_\_\_\_\_  
 Street City State  
 Parent or Guardian \_\_\_\_\_  
 Street City  
 Home Physician \_\_\_\_\_  
 Street City  
 To what school in the University are you applying? \_\_\_\_\_  
 Have you ever attended Boston University before? \_\_\_\_\_ If so, date and department \_\_\_\_\_  
 Address while at University \_\_\_\_\_  
 Street City Tel.

### **FAMILY HEALTH**

Age and Health of living (or cause of death)

Father \_\_\_\_\_ Brothers \_\_\_\_\_  
 Mother \_\_\_\_\_ Sisters \_\_\_\_\_

Check the following diseases which have appeared among your relatives, indicating relationship:—

Kidney disease \_\_\_\_\_ Diabetes \_\_\_\_\_ Cancer \_\_\_\_\_ Apoplexy (stroke) \_\_\_\_\_  
 Heart disease \_\_\_\_\_ Tuberculosis \_\_\_\_\_ Nervous breakdown \_\_\_\_\_ High blood pressure \_\_\_\_\_  
 Asthma \_\_\_\_\_ Hay Fever \_\_\_\_\_

# PERSONAL HISTORY

Age ----- Birth date ----- Place ----- Married ☐ Single ☐  
 (If born in a foreign country, age when entered United States) ----- Race ----- Religion -----

Check: each disease you have had and give year of age

Age	Disease	Age	Disease	Age	Disease	Age	Disease
	Appendicitis		Eczema		Hives		Scarlet fever
	Appendix removed		Encephalitis		Infantile paralysis		Sinus trouble
	Asthma		Epilepsy		Influenza		Smallpox
	Bronchitis		Food poisoning		Malaria		Tonsillitis
	Chicken pox		Gout		Measles		Tonils removed
	Diabetes		Hay fever		Meningitis		Tuberculosis
	Diphtheria		Heart trouble		Migraine		Typhoid
							Whooping Cough

Underline diseases against which you have been protected by inoculation or vaccination and give date:—

Smallpox ----- Typhoid ----- Diphtheria ----- Scarlet fever ----- Hay Fever ----- Asthma -----

What has been the general condition of your health? (Underscore)

Good Fair Poor

Do you have any of the following ----- If so, describe:

Fatigue ----- Chronic cough -----  
 Dizziness ----- Sinus trouble -----  
 Shortness of breath ----- Bells -----  
 Palpitation ----- Acne -----  
 Headache ----- Frequent colds -----  
 Fainting attacks ----- Indigestion -----  
 Sore throat ----- Constipation -----

Do you smoke? ----- Number daily:—Cigarettes-----

What illness of more than one week's duration have you ever had? ----- When? -----

Have you ever had any limitation placed upon the amount or character of your exercise? ----- If so, why? -----

Do you consider yourself physically able to stand the test of strenuous college work, including the requirements of Physical Education? ----- Does ordinary use of eyes for reading or close work cause sense of fatigue? ----- If eyes examined, give date ----- Under drops? ----- Wear glasses? -----

Does any effect of previous injury or illness persist at present ----- What? -----

What is the most you ever weighed? ----- Present weight ----- Weight last year ----- Present height -----

NUTRITION:—Do you regularly eat three meals a day? ----- Do you understand and use the principles of a balanced diet? -----

ACTIVITY :—Past habits of physical exercise—little, average, much. Out of doors during winter—little, average, much. In what sports are you proficient? -----

What do you most enjoy for recreation? -----

ELIMINATION:—Bowel movements: satisfactory, daily, less often, oftener. How often do you use cathartics? -----

If ex-service, reason for discharge -----

Menstrual Function:

At what age was menstruation established? ----- Interval between periods ----- Days ----- Weeks -----

Months ----- Duration of each period? ----- Pain? ----- Did you miss classes? -----

Have you dissatisfactions, worries or any inefficiencies which you would like to discuss with an understanding physician? -----

Have you ever been exposed to a known case of tuberculosis? -----

If so, in whom? ----- For how long? ----- When? -----

Have you been under observation for TB? ----- Treatment for TB? -----



**One of the entrance requirements of the University is that every entering student shall have completed the following prior to registration.**

1. Report of chest x-ray taken within one year of admission.
2. Revaccination against smallpox if not vaccinated within 5 years.
3. Active immunization with tetanus toxoid, 2 injections or booster dose if more than 2 years has lapsed since active immunization.

### SPACES BELOW TO BE FILLED IN BY FAMILY PHYSICIAN PRIOR TO REGISTRATION

This is to certify that the following tests and immunizations have been completed on -----

Has this patient to your knowledge had any contact with tuberculosis? -----

Chest X-ray examination (must be within 1 year) Report and date: -----

Vaccination against smallpox (must be within 5 years) Date -----

Primary Vaccinia	Vaccinoid	Immune reaction
	(Underline one)	

\*If Immune, is there a scar of previous successful vaccination? ----- When? -----

Tetanus toxoid: 1st. Injection ----- date ----- 2nd. Injection ----- date ----- Booster ----- date -----

Is this individual able physically to participate in physical fitness program? -----

If not, why? -----

Date of Signature ----- Signed ----- M.D. -----

Address -----

## APPENDIX 31 *Personnel Report from Women's Residences*

Date of report \_\_\_\_\_

This report is to be made out in duplicate by the appropriate staff member for each student at the time she (1) takes out a leave of absence, (2) moves to another residence, or (3) leaves permanently. It will be kept as part of her permanent record.

NAME OF STUDENT \_\_\_\_\_ Report covers period \_\_\_\_\_ to \_\_\_\_\_  
Year in College: Senior \_\_\_\_\_ Junior \_\_\_\_\_ Sophomore \_\_\_\_\_ Freshman \_\_\_\_\_

*Instructions:* Check the appropriate term and use the space provided to clarify your meaning. The last section at the end of the report may be used for further explanation.

### HEALTH

#### 1. *Physical*

Unusual vitality \_\_\_\_\_ good \_\_\_\_\_ infrequent illness \_\_\_\_\_ chronic illness \_\_\_\_\_  
physical handicap \_\_\_\_\_  
Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 2. *Mental*

Stability under unusual circumstances \_\_\_\_\_ satisfactory stability \_\_\_\_\_ instability \_\_\_\_\_  
Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 3. *Habits*

Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ good \_\_\_\_\_ acceptable \_\_\_\_\_ poor \_\_\_\_\_

### ACADEMIC WORK

#### 1. *Attitude toward Studies*

Excellent \_\_\_\_\_ satisfactory \_\_\_\_\_ indifferent \_\_\_\_\_ negative \_\_\_\_\_  
Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 2. *Vocational Goals*

Well-defined aims \_\_\_\_\_ working on aims \_\_\_\_\_ goals still in general terms \_\_\_\_\_  
disinterested \_\_\_\_\_ negative \_\_\_\_\_  
Comment: \_\_\_\_\_

### FINANCIAL SITUATION

#### 1. *Status*

Wealthy or adequate \_\_\_\_\_ needs some financial help \_\_\_\_\_ needs considerable financial help \_\_\_\_\_

#### 2. *Employment*

None at any time \_\_\_\_\_ summer jobs only \_\_\_\_\_ partially self-supporting \_\_\_\_\_  
wholly or almost wholly self-supporting \_\_\_\_\_

## STUDENT GOVERNMENT

1. *Participation*

Holds office or chairmanship of a committee \_\_\_\_\_ leader but does not hold an office \_\_\_\_\_ active but not a leader \_\_\_\_\_ interested but lacks time \_\_\_\_\_ passive \_\_\_\_\_ negative \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

2. *Effectiveness (if an officer)*

Outstanding contribution \_\_\_\_\_ good \_\_\_\_\_ passive \_\_\_\_\_ questionable \_\_\_\_\_ negative \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

3. *Attitude toward Student Government*

Outstanding contribution \_\_\_\_\_ good \_\_\_\_\_ passive \_\_\_\_\_ questionable \_\_\_\_\_ negative \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

4. *Adjustment to Residence Living*

Outstanding adjustment \_\_\_\_\_ good \_\_\_\_\_ acceptable \_\_\_\_\_ poor \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

## PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

1. *Appearance*

Attractive \_\_\_\_\_ well-groomed \_\_\_\_\_ satisfactory \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

2. *Personality*

Outstanding \_\_\_\_\_ good \_\_\_\_\_ fair \_\_\_\_\_ negative \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

3. *Skill in Social Situations*

Unusual poise \_\_\_\_\_ usually well-poised \_\_\_\_\_ aggressive \_\_\_\_\_ retiring \_\_\_\_\_ inadequate \_\_\_\_\_

Comment:

*Hobbies, special skills, interests (List and/or comment):*

*Further comments, suggestions, and/or recommendations:*

Staff Member

Residence

Signature—Unit Director

# **BOSTON UNIVERSITY** --- **APPLICATION FOR FRESHMAN SCHOLARSHIP APPOINTMENT** ---

To which School or College are you applying for admission —  
(Please check)

- .....COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
- .....COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
- .....COLLEGE OF PRACTICAL ARTS AND LETTERS
- .....COLLEGE OF MUSIC
- .....SARGENT COLLEGE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION
- .....COLLEGE OF GENERAL EDUCATION
- .....COLLEGE OF INDUSTRIAL TECHNOLOGY
- .....SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
- .....SCHOOL OF NURSING
- .....SCHOOL OF PUBLIC RELATIONS AND COMMUNICATIONS

**T**HE BOSTON UNIVERSITY SCHOLARSHIP is granted on the basis of character, outstanding scholastic achievement and leadership in high school, the results of the College Entrance Examination Board Scholastic Aptitude Tests, and any other tests which may be required by the Committee.

The Boston University Scholarship is a four-year full-tuition award for students who live outside the commuting area and must, therefore, live in a University dormitory. For students who live within the commuting area the award is one-half tuition for four years.

The General Scholarship is a partial-tuition award for the freshman year, granted on the basis of character, high academic standing and leadership in secondary school, and need. Candidates for this scholarship are not required to take competitive examinations.

The completed application should be sent to the Chairman, University Committee on Scholarships and Loans, Room 115, 705 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston 15, Massachusetts, *before April 15*. A candidate's scholarship application cannot be considered until his application for admission has been accepted by the Committee on Admissions.

To the Committee on Scholarships:

I hereby request appointment to a (Boston University, General) Scholarship for the year(s) 19.....-19.....  
(Underline one)



Secondary School? ..... (Signature of Applicant)

Applicant's name in full (Please print) ..... Date of Birth .....

Address ..... City ..... State .....

Street and Number

Father's name in full ..... Is your mother living? .....

If you have a guardian, give his name in full .....

Father's occupation ..... Annual income .....

Mother's occupation ..... Independent income .....

Estimated annual income of your entire family, excluding married brothers and sisters .....

Ages of brothers ..... Ages of sisters .....

Number of persons dependent on family income .....

On how much money can you count in the year for which you are asking appointment to a scholarship? .....

State the sources from which you expect this money .....

How much money, if any, have you earned in the last twelve months? .....

By what work did you earn it? .....

In what position, if any, are you now earning money or board? .....

Plans for residence while attending Boston University .....

Plans for study or other occupation after graduation from the University .....

To applicants for appointment to a General Scholarship: Do you consider yourself eligible for appointment on the ground that you cannot enter college next fall without the aid of a scholarship? .....

TO BE SIGNED BY PARENT OR GUARDIAN

I, (name) ..... (Parent or guardian) ..... hereby declare that I have read the statements made in this application and that to the best of my knowledge they are correct.

Date ..... (Signature of Parent or Guardian)

(OVER)

Names, positions, and addresses of two persons  
whom you have asked to send recommendations for  
you directly to the Chairman, University Committee  
on Scholarships and Loans, 705 Commonwealth  
Avenue, Boston 15, Massachusetts.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

---

BOSTON UNIVERSITY

All candidates for the Boston University Scholarship are required to take the Scholastic Aptitude Tests of the College Entrance Examination Board and should request that the results be forwarded to the Chairman, University Committee on Scholarships and Loans, Boston University, 705 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston 15, Massachusetts. Applications to take the tests should be made to the Secretary of the College Entrance Examination Board, Box 592, Princeton, New Jersey. Your high school principal or guidance counselor can give you information concerning times of examinations, places at which they are to be held, etc.

*To applicants for appointment to The Boston University Scholarship:*

Have you taken the College Entrance Examination Board Scholastic Aptitude Tests?.....

If not, on which scheduled date do you plan to do so? .....

SPACE FOR ADDITIONAL STATEMENTS

APPENDIX 33 *Loan Application Blank*

# LOAN APPLICATION BLANK

CHARLES H. HOWARD LOAN FUND

BOSTON UNIVERSITY

**Boston, Massachusetts**

*Use ink or typewriter (print names). Every query must be answered.*

Full Name.....  
(First) (Middle) (Last)

School or College.....Candidate for Degree of.....Class of.....

Local Address..... Tel. No.....

Home Address..... Tel. No. ....

Name of Parent (or Guardian).....

Address of Parent (or Guardian).....

Occupation of Parent (or Guardian).....

Give three personal references with whom the University may correspond. These should be persons, preferably businessmen, who know of the pecuniary circumstances of your family, and who are not related to you.

NAME	ADDRESS	OCCUPATION

Date of Birth..... (Month)..... (Day)..... (Year)..... Place of Birth..... (City)..... (State)..... (Country).....

Nationality ..... If not born in U.S.  
how long a Resident? ..... Are you  
a Citizen? .....

If married, give date of marriage.....

State where you lived last year \_\_\_\_\_ State where you in- \_\_\_\_\_

(Address and type of dwelling, with relatives, dormitory, apartment house, etc.)

Previous Schools	Dates	Courses or Degrees

[illegible][illegible][illegible]

Intended Profession.....

If you are applying based on a...

If you are eating board or room explain here.



What is the total amount of your present indebtedness?

Name and address:	Amount	Date Contracted	Due Date	Interest Rate	Was a Note Given?	Relationship of Creditor
1. ....						
2. ....						
3. ....						

Describe any real and personal property owned by you or held in trust for you, giving details as to value and annual income

Explain the circumstances necessitating your request for a loan

Do your parents know of and approve your request for a loan?

#### DECLARATION OF APPLICATION

I have read my answers to the questions on this Loan Application Blank and solemnly affirm the correctness of every statement made by me on said Blank.

(Signature)

#### AGREEMENT OF APPLICANT

I hereby apply for a loan of \$..... from the Charles H. Howard Loan Fund to assist me in securing my education. If this loan is granted I promise:

1. To execute a note as required by the University, such notes to be payable, secured, and bound by this agreement;
2. To pay interest at \_\_\_\_\_ per centum per annum during my study in residence at Boston University, and thereafter at \_\_\_\_\_ per centum per annum on the unpaid principal of said note, interest to be paid July 1 and January 1—in event interest is not paid, the unpaid balance of the note becomes due and payable without notice;
3. To secure the note with a loan retirement policy with an insurance company under the Morgan Plan—in event this policy is breached due to my failure to pay any sums due thereunder, the note becomes due and payable without notice; to allow dividends on the policy to accumulate with the insurance company during the life of the loan;
4. To answer promptly all communications from the University or the Insurance Company relating to this loan and insurance policy, and
5. To inform the University and the Insurance Company of any change of address or occupation.

(Witness)

Signature

(Date)

(Date)

Application Approved

Loan Officer

## APPENDIX 34 *Application for Grant-in-Aid*

### BOSTON UNIVERSITY

Committee on Scholarships and Loans

705 Commonwealth Avenue

Boston 15, Massachusetts

#### ITEMS FOR THE CONSIDERATION OF APPLICANTS FOR A GRANT-IN-AID FROM THE TRUSTEE SCHOLARSHIP AND LOAN FUND

The demands on funds for student assistance in an institution as large as Boston University are necessarily heavy. Therefore, assistance can be granted only to those students of sound moral character who are doing highly creditable work in the University and who cannot continue their education without financial aid.

Students whose fathers are not living, or those whose parents have been handicapped by illness or accident, or whose families have met with serious financial reverses, must be given consideration before students whose parents are living and are regularly employed. In general, preference will be given to students who are earning part of their college expenses.

Any student who can remain in college without financial aid, if given that aid, may deprive some very needy student of an opportunity to continue his education. It is hoped, therefore, that only those students who have a real need will apply for the Boston University Trustee Grants-in-Aid.

#### PROCEDURE

1. In general grants-in-aid are not available to new students until after attendance at the University for at least one semester.
2. Application blanks may be obtained in the Office of the University Committee on Scholarships and Loans, 705 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston 15, Massachusetts. Applications for renewal are made in the same way as original applications.
3. All applications for aid from the Trustee Scholarship and Loan Fund for the first semester must be filed in the office of the Committee on Scholarships and Loans not later than July 15; applications for the second semester must be filed by January 2.
4. Great care should be exercised that the required information is given and that *all* questions are answered correctly. If there are facts of importance which are not brought out by this questionnaire, such as extraordinary expenses for hospitalization, medical care, etc., they should be included in a supplementary statement. All information submitted to the Committee is held, of course, in strict confidence.
5. Assistance is granted for one semester and, except in special cases, is limited to not more than one-third the tuition charge, exclusive of all incidental fees. Amounts granted from the Trustee Scholarship and Loan Fund can be applied only to tuition charges.
6. Candidates are notified by the Chairman of the Committee on Scholarships and Loans of the action taken on their applications. Letters notifying applicants of the granting of assistance are to be presented to the Bursar upon registration.
7. If assistance is granted, the applicant understands that the amount advanced is in the form of a loan, the recipient accepting the assistance to consider it a "Debt of Honor" to be repaid at a time convenient to him (or her) without interest or "due date," the money repaid to be used to assist other worthy and needy students.
8. I have read and understand the foregoing statements. All statements on the following pages are true to the best of my knowledge and belief.

Signed.....

Applicant

Full name of applicant ..... School or College ..... Year of Graduation .....

Local address..... Telephone.....

Home address ..... Telephone.....

Race ..... Nationality ..... Age.....

Number of semester hours for which you will be enrolled next semester.....

Name of parent or guardian .....

Address .....

Is either parent deceased?.....Annual income of family (estimate).....

Father's occupation ..... Place of employment.....

Mother's occupation ..... Place of employment.....

Ages of dependent children .....

Other children in college ..... Where? .....

Monthly rent or mortgage payment on home .....

Name of business man (not relative) to whom we may refer .....

Address .....

What church do you attend? .....

Name of minister, priest or rabbi who will recommend you .....

Address .....

Are you applying to any other Boston University fund for financial aid? .....

Have you received assistance previously from any Boston University fund? .....

Have you borrowed money to meet expenses while in college? ..... From whom? .....

If so, how much:	Freshman year	Sophomore year	Junior year	Senior year
	\$.....	\$.....	\$.....	\$.....

Conditions on payment of loans .....

Do you find it necessary to pay part of your earnings to your parents or to others? .....

If so, state facts and amounts .....

Did you enter college on a scholarship? ..... If so, state nature and amount of scholarship .....

and from whom received .....

Hours per week of outside work last semester ..... Amount earned per week .....

Place of employment last semester .....

Nature of work .....

Place of employment last summer .....

Nature of work .....

Amount earned last summer .....

Where do you expect to work this summer? .....

Nature of work .....

How much do you expect to save? .....

Would you be willing to pay off the amount of this grant by working for the University?.....

	<i>Estimated Receipts for next semester</i>
Parents (guardian) . . . . .	\$.....
Summer earnings . . . . .	.....
Earnings during semester . . . . .	.....
Loans . . . . .	.....
Other sources . . . . .	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....
Total	\$.....

	<i>Estimated Expenses for next semester</i>
Tuition . . . . .	\$.....
Special fees . . . . .	.....
Books . . . . .	.....
Board . . . . .	.....
Room . . . . .	.....
Incidentals . . . . .	.....
Fraternity dues . . . . .	.....
Club dues . . . . .	.....
Travel . . . . .	.....
Total	\$.....

Supplementary Statement

I have read and approve the above application.

Signed.....  
Applicant

Signed.....  
Parent or guardian



*For Office Use Only*

Please complete and return to the office of the Committee on Scholarships and Loans, Room 115,  
705 Commonwealth Avenue.

*Registrar's Statement*

I certify that..... is registered as a full-time student  
and that his record for the academic year 19... is as follows:

Extracurricular activities:		Credit hours	Grade quotient
	Semester I	A's.....	
		B's.....	
		C's.....	
		D's.....	
		F's.....	.....
	Semester II	A's.....	
		B's.....	
		C's.....	
		D's.....	
		F's.....	.....

*Recommendation of Registrar*

Date..... Registrar

*Recommendation of Dean*

Date..... Dean

*Committee Action*

Approved.....

Amount .....

Dismissed.....



## Index

- Academic difficulties, 4-5  
Activities (*see* Student activities)  
Administration, changing concept of, 26-39  
    of student-personnel services, centralization, 21-39  
    religious program, 177-181  
    scholarships, 233-234  
    student aid, 229-232  
Administrators, questions for, 33-36  
Admissions, counselors, 46  
    criteria for, 58-60  
    discrimination in, 56-58  
    factors affecting, 52-58  
    methods of, 42-45  
    policies, 49-50, 61-64  
Admissions services, development of, 41-45  
    place of, 45-49  
    trends in, 42  
Advisers, faculty, 73-75  
Aiken, Wilford M., 61  
Aim of education, 258  
Alumni, use of, in recruitment, 51  
American college student, 24  
Angell, Robert C., 161, 254  
Arbuckle, Dugald S., 76, 119, 126, 171  
Athletics, 51-52, 250-253  
Attendance at college, 46  
  
Blum, Milton L., 120, 121  
Bookman, Gladys, 65, 70, 76  
Borreson, B. J., 207  
Bowen, H. A., 229  
Boyer, Edward S., 161  
Bozeman, Mary F., 103  
Brayfield, Arthur H., 97, 100  
Brockman, L. O., 115  
Brouwer, Paul J., 23, 32, 45  
Buckton, La Verne, 59  
Bunker, John W. M., 53  
Butler, John M., 122  
Butler, Nicholas Murray, 202  
  
Career days, 66-67  
Carrothers, George E., 60  
Catalogues, college, 51  
Chamberlin, Dean, 42  
Christenson, Thomas E., 100  
Client-centered counseling, 119-120  
    description of, 138-139  
    philosophy of, 132-139  
    principles of action, 131-132  
    problems, 129-132  
    (*See also* Counseling)  
Clinical services, 190-192  
Clubs, debating, 257  
    dramatic, 257  
    political, 257-258  
    publications, 257  
    religious, 256-257  
Colby, Kenneth Mark, 103  
College, general, 6  
College attendance, 46

- College catalogues, 51
- College students, American, 24
  - recruitment of, 50-52
- College teachers, personality of, 155-156
  - preparation of, 140-141, 154-155
  - principles for, 143-144
- Combs, Arthur W., 133
- Conover, Charles C., 162
- Cooperation between high school and college, 62-63
- Cooperative houses, 210-211
- Counseling, areas in, of agreement, 122
  - of disagreement, 123-124
- client-centered (*see* Client-centered counseling)
- definitions of, 99, 120-121, 126
- eclecticism, 120
- Freudian concepts, 123
- health, 198-201
- nonauthoritarian, 120
- nondirective, 120
- occupational information, 100-101
- relation to health program, 200
- religious, 170-177
- residence-hall, 217-220
- Rogerianism, 120
- terminology of, 119, 126
- vocational, 98-108
- Counselors, admission, 46
  - financial, 230
  - general, 126-132
  - house, 219-220
  - placement, 109-110
  - vocational, 102, 104
- Courses, occupational, 97
  - orientation, 76-80
  - religious, 168-170
  - student-centered, 147-152
- Cowley, W. H., 42, 203, 204, 247, 254
- Cubberley, Elwood P., 158
- Culture, demands of, 5-9
- Cumulative-record folder, 114
- Cuninggim, Merrimon, 166, 178
- Debating clubs, 257
- Diehl, Harold S., 182, 194
- Dining services, 214-216
- Discipline, principles of, 261-264
  - student, 261, 267-268
- Discrimination, in admissions, 56-58
  - in fraternities, 254
- Doppelt, Jerome E., 59
- Dormitories (*see* Housing)
- Douglass, H. R., 42
- Dramatic clubs, 257
- Dressel, Paul L., 14, 17
- Eclecticism, 120
- Education, aim of, 258
  - general, 6, 22
  - health, 196-198
  - higher (*see* Higher education)
  - liberal, 22
- Educational research, 9
- Educational use of housing, 205-207
- Eels, Walter C., 23
- Erickson, Clifford E., 23, 121, 123
- Evaluation, criteria for, 13-19
  - improvement of, 17-20
  - methods of, 11-17
    - scientific, 12-13
    - survey, 11-12
  - need for, 9-11
- Examination, medical (*see* Medical examination)
- External frame of reference, 134
- Faculty advisers, 73-75
- Faculty interviews, 74, 94
- Faunce, Roland C., 62
- Feingold, S. Norman, 234
- Fellowships, 237
- Ferguson, Harold A., 42
- Fernandez, Joseph, 48, 49
- Financial aid (*see* Student Aid)
- Financial counselor, 230
- Foley, J. D., 121, 263
- Follow-up, 115-117



- Frame of reference, external, 134  
internal, 133-134, 174
- Fraternities and sororities, arguments  
for and against, 254  
discrimination in, 254  
as housing units, 209-210
- Free will, 176
- Froehlich, Clifford R., 14
- Furlani, Paul Joseph, 267
- Gallagher, Buell G., 226
- Gardner, Donfred H., 46, 48, 65
- General college, 6
- General education, 6, 22
- God-centered therapy, 171-177
- Gordon, Ira J., 127
- Government, student, 259-261
- Grading in college teaching, 59, 153
- Grants-in-aid, 244
- Graves, Albert D., 59
- Group, definition of, 141
- Group interaction, 144-146
- Group process, 142
- Guidance (*see* Vocational guidance)
- Guidance records, 89
- Hahn, Milton E., 14, 97, 119, 120
- Hand, Harold C., 202, 248, 253
- Harper, William Rainey, 204
- Harris, Cyril, 161
- Harris, Seymour E., 53, 56, 225, 228
- Hassan, Robert Gerard, 267
- Havighurst, Robert J., 233
- Hawley, Charles A., 158
- Health, mental, of students, 199
- Health counseling, 198-201
- Health education, 196-198
- Health instruction, 196-197
- Health program, history of, 182-183  
objectives of, 185-186  
records, 189
- Health services, illustrations of, 191-192
- Healthful environment, 193-196
- Higher education, need for, 46-47  
purposes of, 249  
withdrawal from, 2-5, 48-49
- Hilton, M. Eunice, 29
- Hopkins, E. H., 32
- Hopkins, L. B., 23
- Hoppock, Robert, 97
- Housing, cooperative, 210-211  
dormitories, 208-209, 214  
fraternities and sororities, 209-210  
off-campus, 211-214
- Housing services, administration of, 220-223  
development of, 203-208  
educational use of, 205-207
- Hutchins, Robert Maynard, 246
- Infirmity, 190-192
- Information, gathering and dissemination of, 87-98  
kinds of, 90-94
- Inner frame of reference, 133-134, 174
- Interpretation of tests, 107-108
- Johnson, Burgess, 247, 255, 259
- Johnson, Robert L., 53
- Jordan, Wilbur K., 236
- Justin, Margaret M., 202, 214
- Kandel, I. L., 240
- Killefer, Tom, 253
- Lange, Norman, 263
- Latham, Louise, 209
- Leadership scholarships, 235
- Lecky, Prescott, 138
- Liberal education, 22
- Lloyd-Jones, Esther M., 23, 161, 163, 203, 248
- Loans, eligibility for, 237  
follow-up of, 238-239  
losses on, 238

- Lowell, A. Lawrence, 204
- McAllister, Charles E., 29
- McCabe, Robert D., 110
- McGrath, E. C., 225, 227, 235, 243
- McHale, Kathryn, 202
- MacLean, Malcolm S., 14, 119, 120
- Mathewson, Robert Hendry, 121
- Medical examination, aspects of, 187  
     objectives of, 187  
     records of, 188-189
- Mental health of students, 199
- Morton, R. L., 62
- Mumma, Richard A., 61
- Nonauthoritarian counseling, 120
- Nondirective counseling, 120
- Oberteuffer, Delbert, 197
- Objectives, of health program, 185-186  
     of medical examination, 187  
     of student personnel services, 13
- Occupational courses, 97
- Occupational information, in counseling, 100-101  
     determination of, 94  
     sources of, 95-98
- Orientation, big sisters, 67  
     career days, 66-67  
     development of, 65-66  
     faculty interviews, 74, 94  
     faculty talks, 75  
     free time, 76  
     giving of information, 76  
     meeting with advisers, 73-75  
     meeting with student leaders, 74-75  
     precollege, 66-68  
     purposes of, 65  
     registration, 69  
     social events, 75  
     testing, 69-73  
     types of programs, 80-83
- Orientation courses, 76-80
- O'Shea, Harriett E., 9
- Phenomenal self, 137
- Placement, effects of, 110  
     steps in, 111
- Placement counselors, 109-110
- Placement offices, budgets of, 110-111  
     organization of, 111  
     tasks of, 111
- Political clubs, 257-258
- Porter, E. H., 119
- Prator, Ralph, 49
- Prediction of college success, 4
- Problems, vocational, 99
- Proctor, William M., 23
- Psychologists, training of, 102-103
- Publications, 257
- Rackman, Eric N., 17
- Recruitment of college students, 50-52  
     use of alumni in, 51
- Reed, Anna Y., 23
- Reeves, Floyd W., 27, 55, 57, 65
- Registration, 69
- Religious clubs, 256-257
- Religious program, administration of, 177-181  
     chapel services, 165-167  
     counseling, 170-177  
     courses, 168-170  
     history of, 158-160  
     need for, 160-163  
     organization, 167-168  
     purpose of, 157
- Remmie, Thomas A. C., 103
- Research, educational, 9
- Restrictions, 266-267
- Risty, George B., 230
- Roens, Bert A., 121
- Rogesianism, 120
- Rogers, Carl L., 35, 119, 120, 126, 134
- Rogers, J. E., 190

- Ross, Josephine H., 123  
 Rothney, John H., 123  
 Russell, John Dale, 44, 248  
 Ruthven, Alexander Grant, 198  
 Ryan, James H., 158
- Scholarships (*see* Student aid)  
 Scott, William E., 248  
 Self-consistency, theory of, 138  
 Services, admissions (*see* Admissions services)  
   dining, 214-216  
   health, clinical, 190-192  
   illustrations of, 191-192  
   housing (*see* Housing services)  
   student personnel (*see* Student personnel services)  
   vocational, 84-117  
 Shartle, Carroll L., 94  
 Shepard, Charles E., 182, 194  
 Slavson, S. R., 141  
 Small, Leonard, 104  
 Smith, Glenn E., 23  
 Smith, Leo, 115  
 Smith, Margaret Ruth, 23, 28, 203, 248  
 Snyder, William V., 119  
 Snygg, Donald, 137  
 Sororities (*see* Fraternities and sororities)  
 Speek, Frances V., 202  
 Stalnaker, John M., 234  
 Stanton, Crawford C., 23  
 Stewart, Helen Guien, 206  
 Strang, Ruth, 23, 41, 118, 249, 266  
 Student activities, athletics, 51-52, 250-253  
   clubs (*see* Clubs)  
   criteria used, 249-250  
   definition of, 246  
   financing of, 264-268  
   place of, 246-250  
   records, 249  
   restrictions on, 266-267  
   types of, 250-258
- Student aid, administration of, 229-232  
   criteria used, 228  
   Federal sources, 241-244  
   fellowships, 237  
   grants-in-aid, 244  
   Jacksonian view, 227  
   Jeffersonian view, 227  
   loans (*see* Loans)  
   need for, 224-226  
   scholarship funds, restrictions on, 235  
   sources of, 234-235  
   scholarships, 232-236  
   leadership, 235  
   work plans, 239-241  
 Student-centered courses, 147-152  
 Student discipline, 261, 267-268  
 Student government, 259-261  
 Student-personnel services, administration of (*see* Administration)  
   development of, 21-26  
   need for, 1-9  
   objectives of, 13  
 Success in college, 59  
   prediction of, 4  
 Super, Donald E., 122  
 Survey instrument, 11
- Teaching, college, grading in, 59, 153  
 Teachers (*see* College teachers)  
 Tests, interpretation of, 107-108  
   in orientation, 69-73  
 Thayer, V. T., 160  
 Thelan, Herbert, 142  
 Thorne, Frederick, 119  
 Towner, Milton C., 158, 165  
 Townsend, Marion E., 23, 26, 248  
 Travers, Robert M. W., 12  
 Trueblood, Dennis, 259
- Vocational choice, theory of, 104  
 Vocational counseling, 98-108  
 Vocational counselors, 102, 104

- Vocational guidance, definition of, 86  
    meaning of, 98-99  
    responsibility for, 100  
Vocational problems, 99  
Vocational services, 84-117
- Waller, Willard, 247, 254  
Walters, J. E., 27, 28  
Warner, W. Lloyd, 224, 228  
Whitmore, Annalee, 202  
Whitney, Frederick Lamson, 23  
Williams, J. Paul, 159
- Williams, Rhea H., 184  
Williams, Robert L., 29, 233  
Williamson, E. G., 118, 119, 121, 123,  
    207, 263  
Wilson, Charles C., 193, 197  
Wilson, Woodrow, 204  
Withdrawal from higher education, 2-  
    5, 48-49  
Woody, Thomas, 23  
Work plans, 239-241  
Wrenn, C. Gilbert, 24, 101, 119, 121,  
    222, 249  
Wriston, Henry M., 86



















Form No. 3.

PSY, RES.L-1

**Bureau of Educational & Psychological  
Research Library.**

The book is to be returned within  
the date stamped last.

**12 JUN 1969**

WBGP-59/60-5119C-5M



371.422

ARB

Form No. 4

BOOK CARD

Coll. No. 371.422 Acen. No 597

Author Arbuckle, Dugald S.,

Title Student Personnel Services  
~~in Higher Education~~

Date.

Issued to

Returned on

371.422

ARB

